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The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 10, 1911.

The Week

If the peace agreements with Great Britain and France are to meet with opposition in the Senate, such opposition cannot be based on the ground that the treaty-making powers of that body have been curtailed. Secretary Knox asserts that the Senate's functions under the new arrangement remain what they are under the present limited treaty of arbitration with Great Britain. His contention is completely borne out by the text of Article I of the new treaties, which declares that, whether a question be submitted for arbitration to the Hague Tribunal or to a specially constituted court, the method of submission shall be in the form of a special agreement, "which special agreement shall provide for the organization of such tribunal, if necessary, define the scope of the powers of the arbitrators, the question or questions at issue, and settle the terms of reference and the procedure thereunder." This special agreement shall be made, on the part of the United States, "by and with the advice of the Senate." The most jealous defender of Senatorial rights could find no peril in this, even in the Senate as we have known it.

With his characteristic modesty and absolute devotion to the Japanese Crown, Admiral Togo will doubtless accept all the courtesies which are shown him here merely as tributes to the supreme virtue of the Mikado. It was to that, it will be remembered, that the chief Japanese naval official attributed Togo's great victory in the Straits of Tsushima, in acknowledging receipt of the Admiral's report of his amazing achievement. But in the warm reception which the Admiral is enjoying, there is sure to be much of the personal. He is the greatest sea-fighter of the age, properly characterized as the Nelson of Japan, and he is the more interesting because of his reputation for silence and mystery. This characteristic of the man does not, however, prevent his being a genuinely forceful personality, as well as a great strategist. No one must think that his very silence failed to impress his subordinates or that he was merely the brains of the Japanese fleet, a marvellous sea-Moltke, cold and impassive, or a wonderful thinking automaton.

Mr. Carnegie has provided a pension for Andy Toth, the Hungarian who some time ago was released from the penitentiary at Pittsburgh, where he had spent twenty years of a life term for a crime which it was discovered he had not committed. But what sticks in the mind, in considering the tragedy, is the lack of any regular means of redress for errors of this sort made by society. The individual who injures us, though under a misapprehension, has to pay for his mistake; but legal procedure against the State for a similar act is impossible. Would it not have been the more suitable procedure for the late Legislature at Harrisburg to acknowledge the State's mistake, and to perform the only reparation in its power by providing the victim with an annuity? This course would have been consistent with its own dignity, and would have had the advantage of distinctly presenting the relief, which must at best be wofully inadequate, as an act of justice and not of charity.

As a practical proposition, Senator Owen's bill for the elimination of the Federal judiciary as an independent department of the United States Government does not call for serious consideration; as a sign of the times, it is distinctly worth attention. In proposing that Congress shall have power to remove any Federal judge at its pleasure, and without the assignment of any other reason than its own opinion of the requirements of the public good, Senator Owen goes far beyond what any body of public sentiment now worth considering would at all countenance; but the restiveness which, in his case, finds expression in this wild and revolutionary proposal is felt by many sober persons who are casting about for some means of curbing the power of the judiciary, and who, though reluctant, yet feel tempted to look to the recall, in some form, as the necessary remedy. The essence of the matter is the assertion, first, that the judiciary has usurped legislative functions; and, secondly, that by virtue of the finality which attaches to the acts of the highest courts, we have a system of government in which irremovable judges are clothed with unlimited power.

Take, however, that particular instance of Supreme Court "usurpation" which, more than any other, has aroused the indignation of the enemies of judicial autocracy. In the Standard Oil decision, the Court, we are told, takes a statute, and where the words appear "restraint of trade," it says "unreasonable restraint of trade" is meant, even though Congress has expressly refused so to limit the statute. Now, is there anything under Heaven to prevent Congress from passing a law, in a score or so of words, declaring that the Sherman act prohibits *all* restraints, whether reasonable or unreasonable? Yet Congress will not do it. It *did* refuse to insert the qualification in so many words; but it will also refuse to put in the *denial* of the qualification in so many words. The Court thinks Congress could not have meant to prohibit *all* restraints, because that would result in the sort of thing which was the undoing of Shylock; the Supreme Court refuses to take the position of Portia, though perhaps that may have been literally nominated in the bond. But nothing would be easier than for Congress to leave the Court no alternative. Until Congress does so, the Court's suspensory veto—if veto it is to be regarded—will hold good; the moment Congress decides to go the whole length of the literal prohibition, it can have its way.

If anybody was expecting Mr. Roosevelt to give but a half-hearted approval to his own action concerning the Steel Trust's absorption of the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company, he must have been sadly disappointed on reading the statement presented to the Stanley Committee last Saturday. The Colonel enthusiastically approves everything the President did in 1907; he finds it perfect not only in purity of motive and soundness of judgment, but in all its consequences, immediate and remote, direct and collateral. But while four years of opportunity for contemplation have thus failed to reveal to Mr. Roosevelt any possi-

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bilities of defect in the little transaction of November 4, 1907, between himself and Messrs. Gary and Frick, upon other minds inconvenient doubts obtrude themselves. It took him only the brief space intervening between his breakfast on that morning and the opening of the New York Stock Exchange to decide that if in the future the steel magnates should be charged with having been actuated by any monopolistic motive, this would not represent "what could honestly be said, but what might recklessly and untruthfully be said"; and yet there are to-day great numbers of people who are not in the least either reckless or untruthful, and who think that no other supposition really fits the facts.

Counsel for Lorimer, at Monday's session of the investigating committee, worked "for all it was worth" the fact that the witness Beckemeyer, who confessed that he had taken a bribe, had at another time denied that he had done so. Mr. Hanecy made Beckemeyer brand himself a liar, over and over again. That may have been fun for Hanecy, and it was certainly hard on Beckemeyer; but it does very little for Lorimer. A man that will take a bribe is very likely to lie about it; and the fact that he actually did lie, however thoroughly it might be established, would leave the matter just about where it would have been without it. The case is very different from that of Hines; if Hines could be proved a liar, the bottom would drop out of his defence against the charge of bribe-giving. It is unfortunate, but true, that a man's denial of having committed a crime is not entitled to the same degree of confidence as his acknowledgment that he did commit one. And as for this Lorimer case, it is further unfortunate for the challenged Senator from Illinois that there are a number of separate and distinct persons who have confessed to receiving bribes, and also a formidable array of witnesses whose statements agree in pointing to Hines as the collector and distributor of a big corruption fund.

Only six years old, the Dreadnought type of monster battleship is doomed, if the report is correct that the Admiralty has decided upon smaller armored ships. Ever since the launching of the first Dreadnought, which set all the major countries to building imitations, the Admiralty has each year planned a bigger and faster battleship. The Dreadnought itself was nine per cent. larger than its predecessor, having a displacement of 17,900 tons. But within five years the Lion appeared with 8,450 tons more of displacement, and a length 170 feet greater. This ship is but 40 feet shorter than the gigantic 700-foot ocean liner. Hence, it is easy to understand the excitement in British and foreign naval circles when it was rumored that the 1911-12 battleship is to be smaller than the Dreadnought by 400 tons and inferior in size by nearly 9,000 tons to the Lion and her sister ships. No official announcement has as yet been made as to the exact changes, but naval opinion has accepted the report that these smaller ships will carry only six monster guns, presumably of fifteen-inch calibre, as opposed to the eight 13.5-inch guns of ships of the Lion class, the reduction being, of course, necessitated by the smaller tonnage.

Prospects of further trouble between the Des Moines City Railway Company and its employees are now said to be small, "except in the courts." As the courts are the places specifically established for the reception and settlement of such troubles, the situation in this respect is just as it should be. The injunction which interrupted the strike was prematurely assailed by Mr. Gompers, who was unaware that it was directed against the company rather than against the men, and who seized the opportunity to fulminate against all injunctions as intended to bring workingmen "into a condition of slavery." It is now attacked by the president of the company. If the statement of the president of the Des Moines carmen's union is true, however—and it seems to be undisputed—the duty of the company is plain. An agreement has been in force, he is reported as saying, between the company and the union, requiring that disputes be arbitrated. The company, he asserts, refused to arbitrate the case of the discharged conductor which brought on the strike, and the court's order reinstating him and compelling the company to submit the matter to arbitration followed. If the result of the dispute and attempted strike should be to compose the difficulty peaceably, other cities will envy the Iowa capital its good fortune in having such an agreement to swing over the heads of both corporation and employees.

The highly regrettable election of ex-Governor Vardaman as Senator from Mississippi will probably have one good result—to put John Sharp Williams on his mettle to maintain the dignity of the State which he represents. If he succeeds in doing this in spite of what his colleague does to the contrary, he will be a leader indeed. Outsiders will wonder why the present incumbent, Senator Percy, should not have been re-elected. True, he is almost alone in his attitude toward charges of bribery, returning promptly to the Mississippi capital when such allegations were made against his managers and demanding a new primary; a demand which was not granted simply because his enemies could not produce enough evidence to warrant the expenses of his reëlection. He has not been long enough in the Senate to be a notable figure. Moreover, Senator Percy is simply a gentleman, an able man, a lawyer of unusual merit, fair-minded toward all people and both races—as different from the Vardaman type as a man could well be. His successor may be expected to run a close race with Jeff Davis for the position of chief Senatorial demagogue and buffoon.

The popular notion that the owner of the soil owns everything above and below it, says a writer in *Case and Comment*, has no well-founded support in law. No exclusive right can be had in either light or air. All that there seems to be in the maxim *Cujus est solum ejus est usque ad cœlum* is that ownership to the sky means preferential use of the space by the owner of the soil, and that such use is interfered with only when the enjoyment of the soil is diminished. What, then, are the landowner's rights with respect to aviation? May he prevent flights across his land on the theory that they constitute a trespass by interfering with his beneficial enjoyment of the soil? According to one theory, set forth in a Paris journal, one has a claim to sunlight, and is entitled to damages for shadows of aeroplanes that are cast upon him. Presumably, airships flying at a great height would not be much bothered by this restriction. Another

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theory limits vertical ownership to three hundred metres. This is even more fanciful, if anything, than the preceding view. The idea that seems likely of adoption lies between these two. It is that the ownership of the soil extends into the air as far as it is of use. The higher we build the higher our ownership reaches. But there will always be a point where ownership ceases to have any meaning, and where the owner ceases to have a right to hang out a No Trespass sign. This view, which is that dictated by common sense, has already been taken by the Swiss Civil Code.

It was Mr. Balfour's contention in the House of Commons on Monday that Mr. Asquith has wrought damage to the dignity and prestige of the Crown by obtaining the King's coöperation in the struggle with the House of Lords. But the plain facts in the case are that Mr. Balfour has done great harm to the prestige and dignity of the Crown by dragging the person of the King into the sphere of parliamentary debate. Every man in Parliament must have known what Mr. Asquith was finally forced to state in blunt terms, that there never was any question of the King's accepting the advice of his Ministers to create peers; "the system was cast-iron." Every English schoolboy knows that the King, so far as the play of the great political forces is concerned, is but a figurehead and that sovereignty abides in the House of Commons. But loyalty and decorum and reverence for ancient form have continued to invest the monarch with the traditions of power that he does not really enjoy. It remained for the Unionist leader to bring out, in unmistakable terms, the impotence of the Crown. Mr. Balfour's motion of censure against the Ministers for having abused their power over the King is another way of saying that the Ministers have made wrong use of the tool in their hands.

The tariff bill now pending in the Dutch States-General makes a classification of manufactured goods into three great divisions—partly manufactured, nearly finished, and fully manufactured; the duties ranging from 3 to 6 per cent. in the first division, going as high as 10 per cent. in some cases in the second, and reaching a maximum of 12 per cent. in the "fully manufactured" class. With raw materials free, and with an extreme limit of 12 per cent. for manufactured goods, it is difficult to see how those poor Dutchmen will manage to survive. It is well known that they have the misfortune to be more prosperous than most of their neighbors, and it is distressing to think of what the pauper labor of Belgium or Austria will do to them, with nothing but a duty of from 3 to 12 per cent. to keep the country from being flooded with foreign goods. Or rather it would be distressing if one did not remember that, contrary to all common sense, they have hitherto persisted in trying to live along without any protective tariff at all, and have actually succeeded in keeping up a very good show of prosperity. Their foreign trade, for example, has for many years been growing at an astonishing rate, and the total of exports and imports—not counting transit trade—now exceeds two billion dollars annually; a tidy sum for a nation of barely six million people.

The maxim "Few die and none resign" is as inapplicable to Haytian Presidents as to French, although the resignations bear a larger proportion to the deaths in the West Indian republic than in the European. Gen. Simon was elected by the National Assembly in 1908 for the seven-year term, the method of choice and the length of service again suggesting France. Last year, however, there was a plot to depose him and put in his place Gen. Firmin, who recently deserted his post as Minister to Great Britain to join the present successful revolt. The failure of the one a year ago was due to the death of the aged General and ex-President Nord Alexis, who was furnishing the funds. He had been luckier than his successor was destined to be, for it was not until the last year of his term that he was compelled to leave the position which had given him a fortune. Haytian history offers as good an illustration as could easily be found of President Lowell's figure of government as a stage-coach whose horses are running away, and whose driver has as his chief concern, not the safety of his passengers or the bringing of them to their destination, but the keeping of his seat. Just now the question is who will get the one from which the latest unsuccessful driver has been pushed.

It should now seem as if the very gloomy situation in Albania a few days ago were only the darkness that precedes the dawn. The Albanian tribesmen had had their taste of Turkish promises, and were not disposed to try again. The Government of Montenegro was openly encouraging the hostile tribesmen. The tone of the European press was hostile to Turkey. All the elements of a conflagration were present, yet Turkey's ultimatum to Montenegro, instead of supplying the incendiary spark, has cleared the air at one stroke. The hostile tribesmen have accepted the concessions offered by the Turkish Government only under orders from the Montenegrin Government. And inasmuch as it was King Nicholas of Montenegro who kept the revolt alive, he was undoubtedly the proper person to order a halt. Behind Montenegro is supposed to have loomed up the sinister influence of a great Power eager for trouble. But whoever the party to the quarrel may have been, Austria or Russia, it is apparent that the prospect of a general war on account of Albania was very much more than it bargained for.

Predictions are made of the retirement of the Katsura Ministry in Japan and the organization of a cabinet by Marquis Saionji, who was Katsura's predecessor in office. Thus parliamentary government in Japan seems tending toward the two-party system on the English model, although Japan has no two parties corresponding to Conservatives and Liberals, and there is no responsibility of Ministers to Parliament. One thing that may be expected with the passing of Premier Katsura is a relaxation of the rigorous policy of suppression which has been felt in the field of literature, art, and economics, as well as politics. Significant indications of an extraordinary state of affairs in the Mikado's Empire are continually breaking out in the Western press. Workingmen's organizations are being persecuted, books and the theatre are censored, the newspapers are under strict supervision. The recent so-called anarchist trial with its wholesale hangings aroused a sense of horror all over the world. The rulers of Japan will find it harder to meet the ideas of the West than they found it to meet the West's battleships and cannon.

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THE OUTLOOK IN CANADA.

In attempting a forecast of the results of the approaching parliamentary elections across the border, we are in danger of overestimating the importance of the specific issue of the moment and underestimating the general drift of Canadian party politics. Sir Wilfrid Laurier has dissolved on the question of reciprocity and is making his campaign on that platform. Yet it is essential to remember that reciprocity is being advocated by the party which has been in control of Canadian affairs for a decade and a half. The predominant question to-day is whether or not the Liberal party has run the length of its tether. If the Canadian people are tired of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, reciprocity will hardly save him. If they have no desire for a change on general grounds, reciprocity will hardly destroy him.

The two-party system in Canada has worked more along the lines of our own political evolution than that of England. Even in the mother country the theory that one party in power succeeds another in swift rotation has seldom been realized. The tide will run Conservative through several Parliaments and then set as steadily in the Liberal direction. Nevertheless, the cycles of party supremacy and party eclipse in England are much shorter than they have been with us or with the Canadians. Our own record of half a century of Democratic ascendency followed by half a century of Republican ascendency has almost been paralleled in Canada. From the establishment of the Canadian Federation in 1867 to 1896 the Conservatives were out of power for only five years. From 1896 to the present day, the Liberals have been in control. The Manitoba school agitation was the specific issue upon which the Conservative party went to pieces in 1896, but the real cause was rather senile debility. It cannot be said that the Laurier régime has reached that stage.

It does not detract from the prestige of the Canadian Liberals that the Liberal party should be so largely Sir Wilfrid Laurier. For that matter, the Conservative party during its long period of supremacy was largely Sir John Macdonald. It has been Sir Wilfrid's good fortune to have behind him oldest Canada and newest Canada—Quebec, in which his influence is largely a question of blood-descent, and the great Canadian West, whose marvellous development, fortunately for the Liberals, began just when that party was coming into power. To that development Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his followers were wise enough to lend the very heartiest encouragement. The political advantage they have derived is therefore the honest reward of opportunity well seized. How fast the Canadian West would have grown under a Conservative régime is not a practical question. The average voter does not look behind the returns. With us it has taken a quarter of a century to knock a breach into the widely accepted dogma that it is the Republican party that makes the corn grow. To Alberta and Saskatchewan the Liberals are in a position to point with pride. And it is fair to presume that as the influence of the West continues to increase, the fortunes of the Liberal party, speaking broadly, are likely to grow with it.

That reciprocity will prove, in the present campaign, to be one of those dynamic issues that work political revolutions seems highly improbable. For one thing, as a practical question, it is not old enough and has not bitten into the public consciousness deep enough to produce a nation-wide upheaval. The sentiment for reciprocity is, we believe, a good deal stronger than the sentiment against it. The farmers of the West have spoken with no uncertain voice on the matter. But even among those Canadians who favor reciprocity, we miss the passionate zeal with which the great majority in this country has approached the question. To us reciprocity is a great deal more than a commercial arrangement with a neighboring nation. In a more intimate sense, it is a domestic problem. This first breach in the tariff wall is something more than a tariff measure. It is an assault upon the spirit and the scheme of things of which the tariff is only one manifestation. It is an assault directed against the entire practice of private gain at public expense, whether the public's loss be actual dollars and cents or the corruption of our institutions by the agents of private interest. To millions in this country, the tariff wall is a symbol in the same way that the Bastile was a symbol. The occasion is one for passions to run high.

But Canada has little reason to feel about protective tariffs as we do. To our neighbors, the affair is an economic one, to be judged and decided by a balancing of diverse economic interests. The Conservatives have tried to impart moral fervor into the discussion by raising the issue of annexation and the integrity of the British Empire. Their manœuvre promises to be as futile as the great imperialist call to arms in favor of tariff reform, sounded by the Chamberlain party in England. Obviously the English elector likes his economics and his patriotism separate. The argument of imperial unity failed before the argument of swelling trade returns and increased employment. It will probably fail in Canada, and for the same reasons.

Fought out on its merits as an economic policy, it is exceedingly doubtful whether the reciprocity issue can cut down Sir Wilfrid Laurier's substantial majority. We have seen that the Liberal strength is concentrated in the Province of Quebec and in the new provinces of the West. In both sections, the predominant interests are agricultural, and consequently in favor of a measure that throws open the vast markets to the south. Opposition to reciprocity centres in Ontario, the stronghold of the Conservative party and the principal seat of Canadian manufactures. The division is fairly clear-cut. Anti-reciprocity may gain seats in Ontario. Reciprocity will probably gain seats elsewhere.

MOROCCO AND EUROPEAN PEACE.

Reports now agree that France and Germany are to arrange their quarrels amicably. The details of the settlement may be some time in coming out. For that matter we do not even know with certainty the general lines along which negotiations have proceeded. The only thing that is certain is that the much-touted war for supremacy between Great Britain and the German Empire, with France as a pawn and Morocco as an excuse, is not to come off this time; and this for at least two reasons. One is that in a general European war France would be much more than a pawn, and the other is that for the purposes of such a war Morocco would be a very poor excuse.

Germans are in the habit of complaining that their ambitions and their methods are sadly misunderstood. And they are right to this extent, that we

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have fallen into the habit of looking upon Germany as a fighting machine that needs only the pressure of a button by an irresponsible autocrat to be set into irresistible motion. As a matter of fact, however confident of the German army the Kaiser and his ministers and generals may be, it is childish to suppose that they take nothing but regiments and batteries into account. The War Lord and his advisers know very well that in war there is such a thing as a cause and such a thing as morale. They know that their soldiers are not automata who will fight with just as much devotion for Morocco as they fought for national unity and independence in 1866 and 1871. We may be sure that before the rulers of Germany set out for Armageddon, they will see to it that the nation behind them is inspired by something more than a few hundred square miles of Moroccan desert or a hundred miles of Kamerun coast-line.

There are several other serious problems connected with war which Wilhelm II in all probability does not dispose of as glibly as the ordinary Pittsburgh millionaire who spends two days in Berlin and announces that the French nation is doomed. War has its accidents, and even with sixty millions against forty millions there is no telling what a nation of forty millions will do when driven to desperation. France has before this developed a Joan of Arc and a Napoleon, and it is a far cry, indeed, to Calais and Boulogne as German naval harbors, threatening destruction to Great Britain. Germans may outnumber Frenchmen in the ratio of 3 to 2, but numbers are not infallible. Germany had only a little larger population than her opponent when she beat France to her knees in 1871. Prussia had a smaller population than Austria-Hungary when she overwhelmed the Hapsburgs in 1866. Neither in 1866 nor in 1871 did the German rulers have to reckon with the forces of internal discontent represented by some three million Socialist voters. Take it all in all, the very fact that German prestige stands so high today must be a powerful argument against going to war on any but the most serious grounds.

This does not drive us to the conclusion that Germany's recent action in Morocco was merely a "bluff," and a "bluff" that Great Britain has "called." It is not necessary for Germany to threaten war in order to win respect for her claims. These claims she has put forward in that rough, nerve-racking tone that is unhappily the manner of German diplomacy. Here was France obviously preparing to absorb the greater part of Morocco. Here was Spain scrambling frantically for her own share. No rival Power could stand by without putting in its own demands. Other Powers might have done it politely, though firmly; Germany sent a warship. Just what the Kaiser has asked for we do not know. The early rumors that he wanted all of French Congo have been liberally discounted. What Germany has asked for probably depends upon what she thought France was getting for herself in Morocco. If any one were to accuse Germany of trying to force war on the French Government, Germany might with good reason ask why she should be discriminated against in the distribution of prizes.

Undoubtedly the Agadir incident had its wider phase. Germany was once more testing the strength of the Franco-British friendship. Why she should have done so at this time is at first puzzling. The German Foreign Office could not have been so ill-informed as to believe that Great Britain would refuse to stand by France. The Liberals are supposed to be rather lukewarm to the French alliance; yet it is notorious that Unionists and Liberals hold alike to the principle of a continuous foreign policy, and that in no case would a British Government abandon a virtual ally under pressure. But the German procedure becomes comprehensible if we take the object to have been not to try whether Great Britain would stand by France, but whether France would hold to Great Britain. It was a renewal of the policy of 1905, which was described as one of "Love me or I'll knock you down." In other words, once in so often it seems a part of German policy to remind France that a desirable alternative exists to the Franco-British understanding, and that is a Franco-German understanding. There is in France a considerable body of public opinion that favors a reconciliation with Germany. England's sincerity cannot be taken for granted—when it comes to the pinch, she may pluck the fruits of victory over Germany, and France would have to pay the costs. German diplomacy reinforces this argument by frequent "tests," serving to remind the French people that they must choose between a British understanding with constant vexation and a German understanding with peace.

French pride, undoubtedly, chafes under the necessity of falling back on English support. At the beginning of the present crisis, the Parisian press was loud in asserting that the question was one that concerned France and Germany only. When it came to the test, however, the unfortunate tone of German diplomacy apparently asserted itself. France was asked for sacrifices which she could not concede, and the result was Mr. Lloyd George's speech. This speech was on the face of it a declaration of England's readiness to stand by France, but at the same time it was a declaration that France was still determined to look for friendship to England and not to Germany. Viewed in this light, it is no paradox to say that the latest Morocco crisis did more good than harm to the cause of European peace. France detached from England and in alliance with Germany might easily have brought on a conflagration. France with England behind her can hold Germany in check.

MR. BRYAN'S MISADVENTURE.

The extraordinary scene in the House of Representatives on Wednesday of last week may or may not prove to be the *coup de grâce* to Mr. Bryan as one of the potent forces in American politics. He is doing his best to make irremediable the damage done to his standing by his reckless and malignant attack on Chairman Underwood. Instead of making a manly retraction of the charge whose baselessness Mr. Underwood so convincingly demonstrated, he refers to a Washington dispatch in an Omaha paper as the source of his information, and entirely ignores the exposure made by Mr. Underwood of the falsity of the charge. As that gentleman gave a detailed and undisputed statement of the facts on the floor of the House, as these facts were in diametrical contradiction to the assertions of the obscure Washington dispatch to which Bryan so readily pinned his faith, and as Bryan's own close friend Congressman Kitchin declared, in support of Mr. Underwood, that there was "not a word of truth" in Bryan's charges, and expressed his regret that his cherished

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leader should have been so grossly misled—the stupidity of Bryan's falling back on his precious "information" is only equalled by its audacity. The affair leaves the peerless leader in a far worse position than any in which he had previously found himself.

And that is saying a great deal. The Nebraskan is fresh from two blows to his prestige, each of a kind which no leader of his pretensions can easily afford to suffer. That the party in his own State has turned the cold shoulder to him is bad enough; but a worse thing happened to him a few weeks ago, when the instructions on the wool tariff which he gave to the Democrats of the House in his old-time dictatorial manner were incontinently rejected. The disastrous repulse which his second attack on the House leader encountered derives its significance less from the matter immediately involved than from the circumstance that it was evidently an attempt to recover the ground lost in the first encounter. In his game with Mr. Underwood, Mr. Bryan was playing for double or quits; and the result was not only a doubling of his losses, but an additional stroke of ill-fortune that cannot have occurred to his imagination as possible. That Mr. Underwood might set up a successful defence, Bryan may have been prepared for; that the occasion should have been turned into an ovation for the Alabama man, in which the whole Democratic membership of the House enthusiastically joined, must be a staggering blow to the Nebraskan's self-esteem.

To say that this curious performance is characteristic of Mr. Bryan may be going too far; but there is more than one aspect in which it throws an instructive sidelight upon his nature. Granted that he has not been fundamentally insincere, there is a certain streak of humbug that runs through his career. It can be seen in the cross-of-gold and crown-of-thorns speech, which suddenly made him a national figure; though there it may perhaps be forgiven as a superbly successful oratorical flight. It was more distinctly in evidence four years later, when he refused to part with his stock-in-trade as the unyielding champion of free silver; though here, too, there was something to be admired in the splendid audacity with which he relied on his hold upon his admiring followers. But it was after the silver issue had died out that the streak of humbug became most plainly visible. One "paramount" issue was always in readiness when another had failed; if it was not destruction of the Trusts, and not Government ownership of railways, then it was guarantee of bank deposits that must be attained if the nation was to survive. Always some shibboleth must be ready, failure to pronounce which in true Bryan fashion brands a man as a traitor to his party and an enemy of the people.

It was not, then, altogether an accident which led Bryan into his attack on Mr. Underwood. Mere misinformation, however complete, does not account for it. The denunciation smacked of something else than simple condemnation, the result of opinion or conviction. There was in it something of the artificial ferocity of a "new Messiah" scenting danger to his supremacy in some mystery-bound organization. Silver was gone; bank guarantee was under a cloud; Trusts were not an immediate issue; the tariff was the one thing just now to the front. And so the tariff had to serve; it was possible, even upon wool and steel, as formerly it had been on silver or the Trusts, to commit the unpardonable sin. I will unmask Underwood, and he shall be cast into the outer darkness—that is what one reads in Bryan's statement. And that is what he cannot wipe out by any explanation. If the Democrats of the country have their wits about them, they will find in this incident an excellent opportunity for shaking off what remains of the grip that this persistent exploiter of panaceas so long maintained on the party.

THE ROMANCE OF LEARNING.

Now that the status of higher education in this country is being considered in the numerous informal sessions and conferences which every summer creates, it is pleasant to note how far the discussion of the problem has progressed in the past year or two. Amid confusion of thought and promiscuous laying of blame, it was easy at the outset for college faculties to take to self-pity and to insist that undergraduates, with their athletics and worldliness, were quite willing to trample education in the mire. Then came the muck-rakers with the message that the real pearls were the students. There followed a contagion of apology which led to wild utterances. To one well-known scholar came a voice saying that he not only did not teach, he fuddled. Another found a scandalous moral in the rare organization and discipline of athletic teams as compared with the loose running order of the ordinary college course. And a leading university barely escaped the humility of issuing buttons, ribbons, and banners with the purpose of luring students back to the poor business of college life, as who should say, as the Pléiade said of themselves, "La Docte Brigade."

The discussion has reached a more hopeful stage. Loose thinking has been replaced by the general agreement that neither student nor faculty has been criminally neglectful, but that both have suffered from a natural, if mistaken, policy. It is seen that the mischief has been done by a tendency as wide as the nation—intense specialization—and that if the traditional inner ideal of the college is not to be lost, there must be a spirited reaction. For the college can never, while still remaining a college, employ the methods of technical schools, since its chief function is, by definition, to give a general education. The reaction, as every one knows, has already begun. At Amherst more than elsewhere, but at Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, too, there is now a resolute facing about.

That good will come from broadening students' programmes there can be little doubt. But the problem is, of course, deeper seated than mere curriculum, and can be met only by a constant struggle with the impulse which is behind specialization—the spirit of immediate utility. Just now, while there is discontent with the plan of preparing students narrowly and exactly for after-life, it is not hard to grow enthusiastic over the probable benefits from a study of the remote or intangible. In academic discussion Greek civilization is assuming almost its old-time importance. But when the talking is over and remade schemes of study have begun to operate, the danger is likely to reappear, along with the well-known cry, "What's the use of taking Greek?" Or, at any rate, "Economics 13," let us say, will continue to be more easily justifiable. The danger is increased by the attitude, or language, of many of those

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who are keenest for reaction. They speak of Greek and like subjects as admirable mental discipline, and allow the inference to be drawn that they are nothing more. It may be desirable that all courses should be regarded from the standpoint of discipline merely, but this is not likely to happen. So strictly preparatory are certain courses to various occupations as to have an almost measurable money value. They and their kind are increasing, even at institutions which in general policy have faced about.

So long as the distinction is allowed to persist, the struggle is but half won. To be sure, some headway has been made by carefully compiled tables showing the relative success, in and out of college, of those who have had Greek. The tables are impressive, and should remove Greek from the defensive and warrant a positive faith in it. But what is most imperative is not the study of Greek as such, or of any other subject as such, but an enthusiasm for ideas, for the magic of thought, for abstract speculation. It is especially needed in this country. Here students are more conservative and conventional than elsewhere. The American, having been given a campus, playgrounds, in short a little segregated community which he may call his own, proceeds to make it as much like the outer world as he can; whereas the European, excepting the Englishman, has no such separate domain, and yet wrings from city blocks and halls and walls a world that is distinct and sequestered. Universities in Europe have always been looked at by the people at large with some apprehension, because of their free thinking. Who in this country fears that students will put into practice theories a little too advanced? This is not a plea for such hot-headed outbreaks as sometimes occur in a country like Russia. But when a little learning—the only amount which an undergraduate can acquire—ceases to be a dangerous thing, one may suspect that the sort of learning that is got is not only harmless, but futile. Greek, philosophy, science, to gain an eager following, must profess something more than disciplinary value; they should be shown to have transcendental possibilities.

The task seems, no doubt, titanic. The American outlook is said to be literal, and students are young America. Yet students are protoplasm, too, possessed of tendencies, hardly yet of traits; and, in common with all youth, of imagination. The situation, also, of a large number of boys living together for a good part of four years is in itself romantic and capable of being vastly impregnated. Not that all youths can be made frequently to pursue midnight searches for the philosopher's stone. Yet if those who are so inclined were separately encouraged, there would undoubtedly be formed those cults of far-and-wide thinking which are so necessary to every great college, and which could not fail to influence even the plodding common run of students.

FRENCH NOTES.

PARIS, August 1.

I have already noticed at some length (*Nation*, August 18, 1910) the important studies undertaken by Albert Mathiez in the history of the French Revolution, particularly in all that concerns Robespierre and religious legislation. "Rome et le Clergé Français sous la Constituante" (A. Colin: 5 francs) is the most important general work yet published by M. Mathiez; and to this must be added his recent particular study, "La Déportation des Prêtres et la Sécularisation de l'Etat Civil—conséquences du 10 Août, 1792" (E. Leroux). The documents concerning the Constitutional clergy have been examined by him completely and competently; and M. Mathiez is incapable of any *suppressio veri* where there is question of the refractory or Roman Catholic clergy properly so called. But he is guided by his antecedent judgment that the Pope, as head of the Roman Catholic religion, could, if he would, accept the Civil Constitution of the clergy. In connection with the similarly civil constitution of worship or "cultual" associations attempted by the late Separation Law, which was also refused by the Pope, and has left the Roman Catholic religion outside of French law, this gives a controversial bearing to what should be documentary history. The like unintended consequence of New York State legislation for church trustees, long since fallen into desuetude, shows the impossibility of transforming by law the Roman Catholic Church into something contradictory of Roman Catholic religion. In the *Annales Révolutionnaires* (Ernest Leroux, 5 numbers yearly, 22 francs) for 1910 and January, 1911, M. Mathiez has published other papers of considerable interest. "Robespierre et le culte de l'Etre Suprême" (30 pages) accurately situates his work in controversies which are inevitable, yet necessarily unending, since each party uses the essential terms of the Revolutionary vocabulary in varying senses. Even if words should be made to signify the same things in all mouths, the disputes would, in their last conclusions, prove beyond solution because the parties do not agree as to what is and what is not right or wrong in government and revolutions of governments.

Among those whom Mathiez calls "republican historians" he is chiefly opposed to Aulard—"the personal enemy of Robespierre." According to Aulard, Robespierre used the Supreme Being to serve his own purposes, whereas the preceding Revolutionary worship of Reason was a means of intellectual "emancipation" for the people. For Mathiez, the later worship was only the earlier "continued and perfected." Robespierre, indeed, charged his opponents with "atheism"; but his "fears were exaggerated, his accusations ill founded. The feasts of Reason were in no wise atheist. Their organizers, whose whole ambition was limited to replacing the Catholic mass by a civic mass, did not believe that the people could get on without some kind of worship. For the most part they were not more *advanced*—not more *laïques*, in our sense—than Robespierre himself." What would M. Mathiez think of the language of Goldwin Smith, whose work has been supposed in England and America to make for intellectual emancipation, and who yet applied the term "atheist" to the *laïque* training of France under the present Republic?

According to Mathiez, the deist worship of Reason and the Supreme Being was but the second step in the "de-Christianization" of France undertaken by the Revolution, the first step having been the attempt to found a Constitutional Catholicism. "The essential in the Revolutionary religion was the adoration of the Republic, of liberty, of equality, new words whose prestige was still quite intact; the rest, metaphysics, was a side-issue." Robespierre's greatest discourse—his report urging these religious feast-days on the Committee of Public Safety—sums up the Revolution: "Everything has changed in the physical order; everything should change in the moral and political order." New England never imagined an authority in the American Revolution competent to work a change in its existing moral order.

The *Annales Révolutionnaires*, published by the society of Etudes Robespierristes, includes in this year's subscription the fascicles of Robespierre's works which the society is publishing. English readers who have retained their interest in Carlyle's intuitive history of the "sea-green Incorruptible," or in G. H. Lewes's philosophic defence of Robespierre (to which may be added Belfort Bax's unphilosophical "Marat") both books apparently un-

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known, perhaps for documentary reasons, to French students, or in the serene judgments, based on critical study and the English sense of liberty and government, just published from the pen of the late Lord Acton, ought to appreciate as keenly these rehabilitating studies of Robespierre as they have done the equally one-sided work of Aulard for Danton.

One of M. Mathiez's papers, which has been published apart, has immediate interest for American students of their own history. The thirty-four pages of "Lettres de Volney à La Révellière-Lépeaux (1795-1798)" contain new material which has been accessible to research only since the first of January, 1910, in documents left by La Révellière's family to the Bibliothèque Nationale. Before the Revolution Volney had met, along with the philosophers who came to the house of Madame Helvétius, Franklin and Jefferson. It was he who presented Bonaparte, after the fall of Robespierre, his protector, to La Révellière, who passed him on to Barras, with the result that all the world knows. Volney made a first attempt to escape to the United States during the Terror, but failed. In 1795 he sailed at last, "to seek a refuge of peace for which Europe no longer offered him hope." His travels had their main conclusions set down in his well-known "Tableau"; but these letters add suggestive notes:

I saw in the South the *slave régime* and its moral effects; in the West, the state of society at its birth; in Upper Canada, Frenchmen of Louis XV become half-Indians; in the East, English of the last century already an old nation, the only one here which has a formed character.

The representatives of Revolutionary France, with whom he did not agree, called him "aristocrat, because I see everybody and have dined with Alexander Hamilton and Mr. Jay." A speech of John Adams "breathes hateful and hostile dispositions" toward France; in fact, Adams is "at the head of the very great number who have a taste for the Constitution of England" in the "quarrel of English principles against French principles." More penetrating views of this philosophic outsider in regard to the fundamental difference between East and South, the necessity of expansion in the near future, and the divergence of "Federal and Republican" may be gleaned in these few pages.

"Américains et Barbaresques—1776-1824" (Roger et Chernoviz; 357 pages, 8vo, 5 francs), by Emile Dupuy, is a complete and documentary history of the first attempt of our American Republic to regulate the other half of the world. It was all in our own interests, of course, more perhaps than the latest and more self-glorious efforts in the Philippines and others to come in Liberia and farther afield. The successive defeats of the Barbary Powers by the youngest of the nations was a revelation to many, in diplomacy as well as in war. The whole story is told in these pages with great detail and much sympathy and respect.

An appendix gives the "treaties of peace and friendship" signed by the United States with the Barbary Powers —Morocco, 1786; Algiers, 1795, 1815, 1816; Tunis, 1799; Tripoli, 1796, 1797, 1805. The chapters of the book take up in order events from the capture on a Charlestown sailing vessel, in 1778, of a doctor of Harvard College who was hurried away into slavery in Algiers and never came back; through our early imitation of Europe in tribute-paying and buying back of captives; peace negotiations, followed by our first navy with its operations against Tripoli down to Decatur's cruise; to the last period when "the representatives of England had to recognize the ease presiding over relations between the United States and the regencies," and confided British interests to the American Shaler. S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The origin of the modern temperance movement is traced by some historians to Dr. Benjamin Rush's "Inquiries into the effects of ardent spirits," a tract which he published in 1785 and which was reissued in 1793, and in many subsequent editions. It is a notable fact that he had called attention to the subject many years earlier in a small volume which is now of great rarity.

Two editions have been consulted, and the two title pages are interesting from their variations, and from the evidence they show of intercourse between America and the old home in the late colonial period. Another instance is that Rush's tract was published in full in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for September, 1785 (vol. LV, pt. i, p. 696). The titles read:

Sermons to Gentlemen upon Temperance and Exercise.

Turgidus hic epulis, atque albo ventre lavatur, Gutture sulphureas lente exhalante mephites. Sed tremor inter vina subit, calidumque triental Excudit e mánibus, dentes crepuere retecti Uneta cadunt laxis, tunc pulmentaria labris, Hinc tuba—candelæ.

Persii Satyra III.

Vitam sub Dio-agat. Hor. Lib. III. Ode II.

Philodelphia: Printed by John Dunlop, in Makket (sic) Street M. DCC. LXXII. (pp. 44).

The English edition has this title page:

Sermons to the Rich and Studious on Temperance and Exercise with a Dedication to Dr. Cadogan. By a Physician. (The same mottoes as in the American edition) London: Printed for Edward and Charles Dilly, in the Poultry. 1772. (pp. 80).

Both editions contain the Dedication, but the American has also a Preface of a dozen lines from which we learn, without surprise, that the sermons were never preached.

Both editions were anonymous, or "to speak by the card," the American edition is anonymous, while the English one is pseudonymous. The "Sermons" are duly credited to Dr. Rush in Evans's great work on "American Bibliography." Further evidence, if such were needed, is given by the colonial binding of the writer's copy which has been lettered "Rush's Sermons." Neither edition is in the British Museum Catalogue. The "Sermons to Gentlemen" are admirable expositions of the eighteenth century virtue of Moderation. There is an absence of enthusiasm, and the whole appeal is to the spirit of enlightened selfishness. Dr. Rush quotes the saying of Plato: "I have beheld a monster in Nature, a man who eats two hearty meals in a day," and he strongly advises that the principal repast should be in the evening and followed by sleep. He draws a melancholy

picture of a man who has spent part of his life "among eaters of flesh" . . . Better, far better would it have been for him, had he [in the words of our text] "put a knife to his throat" or even plunged a dagger into his heart, the first day he gave himself up to his appetite than lived to endure such aggravated misery.

The second sermon deals with wine and strong drink, and shows that Rush was then still satisfied as to their usefulness in old age and in certain forms of disease. But he strongly advises that they should not be given to children or be the indulgence of the studious. Moreover, "Wine should not be used by young people, or such as are under five and thirty or forty years of age," except in the case of the diseases he has already named.

To give you an idea of the dreadful consequences of excess in drinking, let me beg of you to accompany me to the bed chamber of a man afflicted with the gout. Be not alarmed at his groans—Let us go in—Is this the man who a few years ago was the life and soul of every company he went into?—Is this he who boasted of the quantity of liquor he could drink without being intoxicated—who spent his youth in a constant round of gayety and pleasure?—How is he changed?—It is now eleven years since he has been a prisoner in his chamber. His physicians have long since deserted him; nor is it any reproach to their art that they cannot cure him, any more than it is that they are unable to raise the dead. He is a burden to his friends. In vain does he seek relief from wine—food—physic—company, or even from philosophy. His only amusement is to number the days of his misery on the wall with the chalk which grows on the ends of his fingers.—Death, the last friend of the wretched, refuses to come at his call—He lives—I retract the word—He has ceased to live ever since his confinement—He breathes shorter and shorter, till at last he closes his eyes for ever in the silence of death. This is not exaggerated picture. We have all seen it at some time of our lives.

In the third sermon he speaks of slavery as a reproach of the American colonies and of humanity—"a crime compared with which every other breach of the laws of Nature or nations deserves the name of holiness." He recommends walking, dancing, fencing, and swimming, but thinks running "too violent to be used often or continued for any length of time." He has praise also for "Skeating," jumping, tennis, "bowles," quoits, and golf which last he describes as "an exercise which is much used by the gentlemen in Scotland. A large common, in which there are several little holes, is chosen for the purpose. It is played with little leather balls stuffed with feathers; and sticks tipped with horn. He who puts the ball into a given number of holes, with the fewest strokes, gets the game. The late Dr. McKenzie, author of the Essay on Health and Long Life, used to say that a man would live ten years the longer for using this exercise once or twice a week." While "riding in a chariot has but few advantages," "riding on horseback is the

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most manly and useful species of exercise for gentlemen."

The little book ends with a fable in the full-bottomed wig of the eighteenth century. The goddess Hygeia appears in the island of Ceylon before a company of invalids each possessed of a pet disease and a pet medicine for it. By her directions "the gouty man broke his vial of elixir, threw his powders into the fire, and walked four or five miles every day before breakfast," and all his afflicted friends did something reasonable. They were all cured, and "joined in offering sacrifices to Hygeia. Temples were erected to her memory, and she continues to this day to be worshipped by all the inhabitants of that island."

The Philadelphia issue of the book as already mentioned is duly credited to Dr. Rush in Evans's "American Bibliography," but both editions are now very rarely seen even by collectors.

Correspondence

SEGREGATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are certain features about the segregation law recently adopted by so many Southern cities, which differentiate it from previous legislation touching the race problem.

First, it is a municipal ordinance, and not an act of Assembly; which is tantamount to saying that it is local and not general in its bearing. Hitherto, all important Southern legislation relating to the negro has been of Statewide application. Such was the case with the statutes forbidding the intermarriage of whites and blacks, their coeducation in the public schools, and their occupation of the same steam railway cars; and such too was the case with the statutes that indirectly abridged the franchise. Now we have a measure designed like these to enforce the separation of the two races, but, unlike these, wholly municipal in its scope. It is only when each Southern State shall grow to be as densely populated as Belgium that this municipal ordinance will be superseded by an act of Assembly applicable as well to rural as to urban communities—in short, to all the communities of the State.

Secondly, all the previous Statewide measures to separate the two races have had the unanimous approval of the Southern white people. On the other hand, this new municipal measure has not the unreserved endorsement of certain important sections of that people. At least, it can be said that the wealthier classes look upon the law with indifference. There is with regard to it none of that community of feeling so perceptible in the attitude of the whites toward the intermarriage, the coeducation, and the co-transportation of the races. The evils of these are presumed to come home to all the white people everywhere; on the other hand, the evils which domiciliary segregation are supposed to remove, come home only to a few white people residing within certain local bounds. The ordinance was passed at the instance of small white householders, who, more for social than for pecuniary reasons, objected to the intrusion of negroes about them. Now, the large white householders reside in a part of the city which is virtually removed from the possibility of such encroachment. For them, the question has no social side whatever. Nor are they likely to be seriously injured pecuniarily should they own tenements in the quarters which the negroes are invading. In the long run, negro tenants of the better class pay more rent than white for houses of the same character; as a rule, they pay just as promptly; and they are much less troublesome in their demands on their white landlords. For these reasons, though negro occupants are in the mass more destructive and neglectful, a considerable proportion of white property holders in the South prefer black to white tenants. In reality, the bulk of the white population assents to the passage of domiciliary segregation laws simply in a spirit of sympathy with a vague racial feeling. Many thoughtful citizens, however, put aside the suggestions of this feeling, and question the practical advisability of such an ordinance even should it be upheld in the courts. They look upon it as a blunder because it further restricts and complicates an economic situation already confused by the presence of two races which can never be amalgamated.

Thirdly, it is quite possible that domiciliary segregation will ultimately prove to be for the negro a means of recovering a certain measure of political power. Indeed, he may, through it, attain the full possession of the right of administering his own local civic affairs. With the rapidly growing black population of every large Southern city rigidly confined to its own residential area, there must come a time when that population will form a single compact body that will count its numbers by the hundreds of thousands. The spectacle will then be presented of a great black city, joined on to a great white city, as Buda is joined on to Pest. The first result of this concentration will probably be the urban negro's acquisition of complete control over his local public school system. That system would, under these circumstances, be directed by a negro general superintendent, responsible, not to a white board, but to a black. At present, the negro schools, though each has a negro presiding officer, are overlooked by a white general superintendent, and a board of white trustees. On the other hand, a segregated negro population would manage their own public schools, the white population theirs, and the only bond between the two would be the central white authority that governed the entire city.

But the political probabilities of domiciliary segregation go beyond the educational. When the size of the concentrated negro population of any city shall justify it, that population is quite certain to be permitted to exercise a large degree of municipal power within their own area—to have their own street-cleaning, building, and health departments; their own policemen; their own magistrates; their own police justice; and even their own local councils. The next step would follow inevitably—they could not be prevented, even if it were sought, from choosing persons of their own race to represent their own districts in the State Legislature; and, if the black population was sufficiently large, from electing a member of Congress. As the constituencies of these public officers would be exclusively composed of negroes, no objection could or would be urged by the white people. Under the operation of the law of domiciliary segregation, the experiment of negro self-government would have a much better chance of success than it has had in Hayti or Liberia, for these black urban communities would remain under the direct influence of the white communities in their immediate vicinity, and would always be subject to the firm supervision of the central authority, Mayor or commission, that administered the general affairs of the city.

PHILIP ALEXANDER BRUCE.

Norfolk, Va., July 30.

TOM L. JOHNSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Commenting editorially upon books and politicians, you make this statement:

> Consider the case of Tom L. Johnson, a man who made a deep impression upon his fellow-citizens. Typical of his kind in other respects, he was not less so in the narrowness of his intellectual range.

The *Nation* seems to have what amounts to genius in its ability to misunderstand Tom L. Johnson. So far as this particular statement is concerned, it is true that he was deprived of the advantage of a college education, and that is as far as the statement even approaches the truth. He was surrounded by college bred men, and was the centre around which their intellectual activities played. His intellectual range was enormous. The sciences, both on the practical and purely scientific side, were his constant delight. He studied and fairly mastered French during the busiest part of his mayoralty in Cleveland. He read with interest both philosophical and historical works, and had rather better judgment upon some questions of a purely æsthetic character than most of those who were constantly with him. He knew his Gibbon far better than any of us, and when the last hours came and he was too feeble for personal exertion, friends and employees entertained him by reading Plutarch.

Mr. Johnson did not regard himself as either a scholarly or learned man, but it was very perilous for anybody else to act upon such an estimate of him.

NEWTON D. BAKER.

Cleveland, O., July 31.

If we have misunderstood Mr. Johnson, we have erred in company with some of his avowed friends. For example, on page 127 of Carl Lorenz's recent life of Johnson, statements may be read which support all that we have said. We may add that the *Nation* has not failed to recognize Mr. Johnson's sterling qualities.—ED. THE NATION.]

A SMALL FRENCH UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The comparative merits of the small and the large school have been so thoroughly discussed in the United States, and champions of the small school have been so numerous there, that one wonders at finding them so rare among American students who go abroad. Of compatriots

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who have studied in France, I think I could name some dozens who went to Paris, one or two who chose Grenoble, and that is pretty nearly the list. There are fifteen universities in France, all under the same national control; and while the great Paris school is, of course, furnished, in general, with the best men and the best equipment, the difference is probably not nearly as great as the Parisian would have the foreigner believe. As far as I have been able to learn, all the schools offer special courses for foreigners, and some of them at least have become much more active within the last year or two in encouraging foreign attendance. Montpellier, where I am, and the neighboring Spanish University of Barcelona are now negotiating a system of exchange professorships on a grand scale, to be put in operation for the first time this coming school year. Half a dozen professors from each school are to go in a body and spend a considerable period lecturing at the other. It will not be the fault of the university managers if a number of other French universities besides the one at Paris do not rapidly acquire an international character.

With a summer in the Alliance Française at Paris as my only means of first-hand knowledge of French higher education, I had reached the somewhat hasty conclusion that Paris was France, educationally as otherwise. Turned almost by accident in the direction of the ancient *alma mater* of Rabelais and the home of Auguste Comte, I found it necessary to revise that judgment. There are libraries in these provincial universities which no American schools save a half dozen of the wealthiest can match; there are excellent instructors, of whom some are internationally known; and, most significant of all, the small number of foreigners in attendance makes it possible to come into such personal contact with members of the faculty as would never be possible in Paris. There was a certain profit, of course, in sitting at the back of a large room and sharing one of René Doumic's piquant lectures with five hundred other foreigners; but there is much more in a tête-à-tête with a critic who is not a René Doumic, perhaps, but is none the less a thorough and well-furnished scholar. There was profit in listening to the Abbé Rousselot as he discussed his experiments in phonetics, but there is more in half an hour of individual drill under the direction of a phonetician who is not as widely known as the Abbé Rousselot, but has won the respectful attention of scholars beyond the limits of his own country.

The frequenting of a particular school puts the student in touch with regional peculiarities, which may in some cases prove a help, in others a hindrance. Montpellier, in the heart of the sunny and garrulous Midi, warm in winter and tempered by sea-breezes in summer, is one of the most curious and pleasant of places for twelve months in the year. The language of the natives is a variety of Provençal, and even the educated inhabitants speak French with an accent that is a long way from the "pure Parisian." This fact frightens some foreign students away—why, it is hard to see, inasmuch as the difference between the French of Paris and the French of Montpellier is the merest trifle compared with the difference between the French of either and the French of Cincinnati or Chicago. On the other hand, it is a distinct advantage to the student of Romance who is interested in the dialects of Provençal to work with them where they are spoken, even if the visitor does not go to the extreme of the young German who entered this institution for a regular course in modern French, but who ate of the lotus of Mistral and Bigot till he forgot his purpose entirely and came out a disciple of the Félibriges.

Of a total attendance of a thousand there are some fifty foreigners (exclusive of a number of Spaniards, Algerians, and others who have spoken French from childhood and take the regular courses). Half of this number are Russians, with several Germans, a small group of English, a few Poles, Norwegians, Swedes, and one American. In view of the advantages of a small school which is at the same time a good school, the wealth of historical, archæological, artistic material in one of the oldest corners of Europe, the unrivalled charm of Mediterranean France, the climate advantages, the low cost of living in a modest provincial city, it seems as if the list of Americans might be a little longer.

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE.

Montpellier, July 12.

"PAMELA" AND SHENSTONE'S LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent in *Modern Language Notes* of May, 1911, calls attention to a connection between Richardson's "Pamela" and the second of William Shenstone's letters in Volumes III of "Works in Verse and Prose" (London: Dodsley, 1777). He points out that this letter is a parody of a letter in "Pamela," yet bears at its end the date "Leasowes, July 22," and at its head "1739"; that "Pamela" is noticed in the Register of Books of the *Gentleman's Magazine* of November, 1740, as item 18; that his letter indicates that Shenstone was on July 22, 1739, sufficiently familiar with "Pamela" to write the parody; that Shenstone may have seen the novel in MS.; that, however Shenstone became familiar with "Pamela," Richardson's statement that he wrote "'Pamela" between November 10, 1739, and January 10, 1740, is incorrect, or that Mrs. Barbauld, in her "Richardson's Correspondence," misquoted the novelist's statement, or that the accepted date of publication of "Pamela," November, 1740, is untenable. The writer finally states that apparently "Shenstone's letter has not been noticed by any of Richardson's biographers and critics, though the reference to 'Pamela,' explicit as it is, if it does not prove that the novel was in circulation as early as July, 1739, makes it incumbent upon the student of Richardson to show beyond a doubt that the letter is incorrectly dated."

Does not this last declaration go too far? Must not one rather say that Richardson's own statement of the date of composition is intrinsically credible and must be shown beyond a doubt to be incorrect, especially when challenged on the basis of a dating by an eighteenth-century editor of letters; as must also the *Gentleman's Magazine* registry of the appearance of an edition in November, 1740 (it is to be noted that the *London Magazine* and the *Scots Magazine* also record this publication in their November, 1740, issues); and as well the announcement of a forthcoming "second edition" of "Pamela" (the novel being characterized as "publish'd but last month") in the *Gentleman's Magazine* of January, 1741; and likewise the announcement of issue of the "2nd edition" in the same magazine of February, 1741?

Shenstone's letter reads as if he wrote from knowledge of a printed book for a person who had knowledge such as would be obtained from a printed book. Men are unlikely to write parodies of MSS. passed from hand to hand, and not in print. Further, we have no evidence that the MS. was read by or to Shenstone or his correspondent. The burden of proof is to be borne by him who opposes the accepted dates of composition and printing of the novel. If any considerable doubt as to the correctness of the dating of Shenstone's letter can be shown, the accepted dates of "Pamela" must stand.

In an article shortly to appear in print, I shall show that this same extraordinary foreknowledge of facts is manifested in a number of Shenstone's letters, as they are dated in Dodsley's edition. In other words, I shall show beyond doubt that Dodsley's dating of a number of the letters (among them iii, iv, v, vi, vii, x, xiii, xxi, xxix, xxx) is incorrect, in several cases by as much as two years. The letter under discussion is probably misdated as are these.

JOHN EDWIN WELLS.

Beloit College, July 12.

"CURIOUS TO KNOW."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has been of late an eruption in Chicago of the expression, "curious to know." One popular newspaper writer of the city is so fond of the locution that he uses "c2k" as an ordinary abbreviation for it.

Irritation at the persistence of this phrase led me to look into Murray's dictionary for information that might afford mental relief, but I was horrified to find that the only appearance of it noted in that monumental work is credited to E. E. Hale's "In His Name," with the date of 1873, thus implying a recent American origin for the atrocity. If the lexicographer's reader had turned back a century further he would have found in Boswell's "Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides," in the entry for August 30, 1773, the following sentence: "Dr. Johnson was curious to know where she slept"; and in the course of the narrative of Prince Charles Edward's escape from the Highlands, attached to the entry for September 13, "I was curious to know if he had really heard," etc. The great doctor himself came perilously near adopting the offensive neologism of his entertaining follower, when in his own story of the tour he said: "The political tenets of those islanders I was not curious to investigate." In his dictionary, however, he gave no sign of trying to affix the meaning "inquisitively anxious" to the word "curious," as he must have done if he had thought his own and Boswell's use of it legitimate in the sentences above cited.

Perhaps examples of the use may be found dating before Boswell's time. I should like to have it as far removed as possible from liability to the imputation of American origin.

THERON WILBER HAIGHT.

Waukesha, Wis., July 12.

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SAINTE-BEUVE AND MACAULAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am not aware that Sainte-Beuve and Macaulay had any personal acquaintance, nor do I remember that Macaulay ever alludes to his French contemporary. Their lines of work were in some respects similar, but their methods were as different as possible. Sainte-Beuve called himself "a naturalist of souls." Perhaps Macaulay, for all his brilliancy, was rather "a showman of souls."

Sainte-Beuve has at least one passage referring to Macaulay, which is exceedingly interesting, because it deals precisely with this difference of method:

On lui a prêté un peu plus de physionomie qu'il n'en a eu peut-être, selon le spirituel et périlleux conseil de M. Macaulay, qui est fort suivi aujourd'hui: "Les meilleurs portraits, a dit ce grand peintre historique, sont peut-être ceux dans lesquels il y a un léger mélange de charge. . . . Quelque chose est perdu pour l'exactitude, mais beaucoup est gagné pour l'effet. . . . Les lignes moins importantes sont négligées, mais les grands traits caractéristiques s'impriment pour toujours dans l'esprit." C'est ainsi qu'on raccommode apres des siècles et qu'on refait bien des personnages!

This passage occurs in the "Premiers Lundis," Vol. III, p. 163. I should be very grateful if any one could point out to me the work of Macaulay from which Sainte-Beuve quotes. As the French article was written in 1864, after Macaulay's death, any of his writings may have been referred to.

GAMALIEL BRADFORD, JR.

Wellesley Hills, Mass., August 2.

Literature

PLEASURES OF A KING.

King Edward VII as a Sportsman. By Alfred E. T. Watson. With an Introduction and a chapter on "Yachting" by Captain the Hon. Sir Seymour Fortescue, C. M. G., K. C. V. O. Contributions by the Marquis of Ripon, G. C. V. O., Lord Walsingham, Lord Ribblesdale, and others. With 1 photogravure plate, 10 plates in color, 12 Rembrandt-gravure plates, and 79 half-tone illustrations. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $6 net.

If for nothing but its outward dress, its quality of paper, typography, illustrations, and binding, every collector of the literature of sportsmanship will want this volume on his shelves. Any one who expects to find the text dull and perfunctory, however, will be agreeably disappointed. Edward's sporting successes, both as King and earlier as Prince of Wales, had to be won on merit, as was shown when his apparent winning of the Grand Military Gold Cup, in a steeplechase near Sandringham in 1887, was successfully contested on the claim that he was not at the time an officer in active service, and hence should not have been allowed to enter.

Mr. Watson's opening chapter gives a brief sketch of the Kings of England as sportsmen. Even the saintly Edward the Confessor delighted to follow the hounds. Angling, however, makes but a poor showing, possibly because it is a sport which loves more of the contemplative and solitary than the pomp and circumstance of royalty can admit. On one occasion, when the late King was shooting at Bradgate, the country place of Lord Stamford, the moving of the party to a second covert was declared by the keeper to be virtually impossible because of the presence of about four thousand spectators in the space between the two coverts. Imagine an attempt to whip a trout stream under such circumstances! King Edward is said occasionally to have tried for trout during his sojourns in the Highlands, but he never manifested a real taste for the sport, and is said not infrequently, and with a certain degree of acquiescence, to have quoted Dr. Johnson's description of angling, "a worm at one end and a fool at the other." The rod excluded, however, Mr. Watson claims for his subject a unique place as a sportsman. Most English gentlemen hunt or shoot, he says; some keep race horses or steeplechasers, others are yachtsmen, and a limited number have shot big game in other lands. But "very few have gained distinction in all these sports alike, and there is no record of any one who has approached the wide range and high degree of success achieved by King Edward VII." And yet at the one point in which personal skill counts most in the sports to which the King devoted himself, the use of the gun, exceptional skill is not claimed. "As a shot King Edward was somewhat variable, at times distinctly good, though never approaching the very front rank, in which King George, Lord Ripon, Lord Walsingham, the Hon. Henry Stonor, and a few others stand by themselves." His comparatively poor shooting is more than once excused on the ground of mental preoccupation with weightier matters, which would seem to indicate that the zest of sport for its own sake never completely got hold of him. Sport was a relaxation to him, the author says, not an end in itself. He was distinctly averse to any attempt to make records in game shooting, and for that reason Mr Watson tells us comparatively little of the material results of his days with the gun on the preserves at Sandringham, Windsor, Balmoral, and the various other places where he sought recreation of this kind. The few figures that we do get, however, are occasionally far too large to make pleasant reading to any American sportsman imbued with the newer ideas of sporting methods.

In the three chapters dealing with Sandringham, Windsor, and Balmoral, as scenes of the King's sportsmanship, the author has interwoven a great deal of matter of historical interest. One owner of the Sandringham property, Col. William Cobbe, suffered temporary sequestration at the hands of the Parliament for his alleged devotion to the cause of Charles I. Through the old Flemish family of the Hostes and then the Henleys the estate came into the hands of the famous Pierre Antoine Motteux, the story of whose death gives a lively idea of the rugged character of *ex tempore* sports which might be indulged in no longer ago than the middle of the eighteenth century. While celebrating his birthday some roystering companions hung him up by the neck just for fun. Unfortunately, a procession passed down the street, and off they are rushed to the windows. When the procession had passed, they discovered to their consternation that the spirit of their swinging host had passed, as well. By a descendant of Motteux the estate was bequeathed to the Hon. Spencer Cowper, and by him sold to the Prince of Wales, in 1861. Windsor, in the form of "Wyndleshora," was acquired by William the Conqueror from Eadwin, Abbot of Westminster, by exchange for lands and mansions in Essex. It was from Windsor, in the thirtieth year of Henry III, that a writ was issued to the sheriffs of London commanding them "to provide a muzzle, an iron chain, and a cord for the King's white bear, to use the same bear to catch fish in the waters of the Thames," a story which makes one wish that the ubiquitous kodak enthusiast of to-day could have happened along when this angling bear of the royal tackle-box was in action. Windsor was King Edward's chosen place for entertaining his royal guests at shooting, and the Kings of Italy, Portugal, Greece, and Norway, as well as the Emperor of Germany, have all enjoyed the shooting there in recent years. With Balmoral King Edward had been associated from childhood. Queen Victoria had acquired the reversion of the lease of this estate in 1848 and purchased it from the trustees of Sir Robert Gordon, brother of the Earl of Aberdeen, in 1852. It was here as a little boy, in 1848, that the future King had his first introduction to deer-shooting, going with the young Queen and the prince consort to the heights of Craig Daigh, where the three concealed themselves in an artificial cover of hurdle-work interwoven with fir and heather. Victoria's description of the scene, which the author quotes from her "Leaves from the Journal of Our Life in the Highlands," makes a good companion-piece to the younger Pliny's famous letter on his wild boar hunt, in which he tells of taking his writing tablets along with his luncheon-basket and wine flask, that he might not return empty-handed even though the game should fail.

One suspects, however, that the King's heart was more deeply interested in his extensive participation in the sport of

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horse-racing, to which two long chapters of the volume are given. For the first eight years of his efforts in this field, ending with the season of 1893, his winnings in stakes had amounted to less than six thousand pounds. The next six years, however, formed an era of distinguished success, culminating with winnings of nearly thirty-two thousand pounds in 1900. But the nine remaining years, in spite of the large number of entries and horses in training, aggregated only a little more in stakes than this one season. We are told, however, that the King's racing establishment as a whole was remunerative. A cheque for £1,000 was handed by him to Lord Marcus Beresford, when he was put in charge, and he was never called upon for another shilling. On different occasions he drew large sums from the profits of the royal stables, and at one time about £60,000 was standing to his credit. His interest in yachting had an early start, since as a youth of ten years he stood with his parents on the deck of the royal yacht Victoria and Albert and saw the schooner America round the Needles with a good lead over her English competitors in the first race for the America Cup. It was more than forty years later that he was to have the Britannia built, which contested successfully against Mr. Gould's Vigilant, in the season of 1894, finally to yield to the German Emperor's cutter Meteor.

It should be said to the credit of Mr. Watson and his collaborators that King Edward himself stands out in their work as a well-defined, thoroughly human, and interesting personality. Considering his position, they might easily have been afraid to get close enough to him to make this possible. The illustrations are lavish in number and chosen to illustrate the text, not simply to attract the eye. They are well-executed, too, with a little possible reserve as to the success of the coloring in some of the reproductions from paintings by Archibald Thorburn and Miss M. D. Hardy.

CURRENT FICTION.

John Sherwood, Ironmaster. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D., LL.D. New York: The Century Co.

John Sherwood learns to be an ironmaster and not much else, and unlearns the lesson in the Maine woods. His uncle owned an iron-foundry, and he himself had a natural instinct for machinery. At nineteen he was a successful inventor, and at thirty the proprietor of the works in which he had been trained. With no love for money in itself, he liked to manage men and to out-do rivals. In short, he lived the life of the successful American. "If, at times I had doubts as to the entire wisdom of my life and vague thinking about what I might do on that some day or other with which the never-quite-satisfied American toys at times, I never set myself seriously to the task of planning any other life." He is American in giving up exercise, after a very active youth. At thirty-five he is pulled up short by tuberculosis, and takes to the woods. So begins a regeneration, mental and spiritual as well as physical. John Sherwood's life in the wilds does not entail hardship. He retains all the real comforts, including his body-servant. But he feels the charm of nature for the first time, the imagination and zest of a child return to him, and, instead of a mere hard-driving force, he becomes a man.

He is not so much alone on his thousand acres that there is no chance for the expression of his new nature. There are several squatters on his land, whom he befriends out of simple good feeling, such as, though known as a philanthropist of sorts, he has never experienced before. One of these people is a madman who thinks he has killed his wife, and has fled to the wilderness for asylum. The upshot of the story, so far as these pages can be said to make up a story, is that the madman, after again trying to kill his wife, falls over a cliff, and, in due time, John marries the widow. But the merit of the book is independent of its story. We suppose Dr. Mitchell's popularity as a writer is due to his optimism. His interpretation of human character is always cheerful and wholesome. His style continues to be rather awkward; it is the kind of style that deals with "individuals" instead of persons, and in general is content with words as rough counters. On two pages, examined at random for evidence of our impression, we find such sentences as these:

> At last I took ample apartments in the city and joined the older club with as little change of life as it was in my power to avoid.
>
> One day we will become transparent to that terrible physical confessor, the doctor.
>
> I fully realized that the complete social isolation I liked was clearly impossible for a man in my position.

For "it was in my power to avoid" read "necessary"; for "will," read "shall"; and omit the word "clearly," and you have sentences which will pass muster. But the chief fault of this writer is not a matter of correctness: it is a certain thickness of speech amounting almost to an impediment.

The Story Girl. By L. M. Montgomery. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

The many admirers of this author will welcome her new book. And those who, in the cases of the later Anne and of "Kilmeny," found cause to temper praise with comparison will give double welcome to a story which returns to the plane of the author's best work. The scene is still in Prince Edward Island, the actors are a group of merry children spending their lives or their vacations on ancestral acres. The acres bloom in the old picturesque and fragrant way. The children are of all sorts, except very bad. Inevitably one of them must be dowered with a fantastic soul, and this one is the Story Girl who has the gift of remembering, inventing, and, above all, of telling. Fairy tales, Norse legends, the family ghost stories, the domestic ancestral joke are alike fuel for her fire. She becomes, in a way, the mouthpiece for much anecdotage, but through it all preserves a marked personality, compounded, in the author's agreeable manner, of fancy, fun, loftiness, and perversity. She is the leading spirit, but there is no lack of individuality among the boys and girls with whom we spend the summer, and pass long hours in the old grand-paternal orchard, where every member of the clan is represented by a tree. We go to school, do chores, gather apples, burn potato stalks, and after the manner of youth attack the problems of the universe. To sit in the grassy aisles of the orchard with the cousins and listen to the Story Girl's witching voice, to assist at counsels of mischief, at the drolleries, scrapes, and inter-squabbles of the young folk, and to have clear if brief glimpses of the elders is to be left with a lively sense of lively and actual acquaintance.

The Stolen Singer. By Martha Bellinger. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.

The hero of this medley is fresh from Lynn, Mass., and the shoe business, the heroine is snatched from the concert stage, the second lady and villain are imported from the court of a small imaginary European principality, while a number of minor characters are supposedly indigenous to the "down in Maine" village where, under the guidance of chance and the author's will, the principals foregather. The arrival of the shoe manufacturer and the lately stolen singer on the wild New England shore is in itself a complete aquatic idyl of a most exceptional order. A comfortable nocturnal tête-à-tête of two castaways floating with one life-preserver between them—what better opportunity could an author's ingenuity offer for a kidnapped lady and her self-appointed squire to make each other's acquaintance, compare experiences, discuss life, death, and eternity, and match quotations. How naturally ensue the shoe manufacturer's heroic and almost fatal exertions to reach terra firma with the exhausted lady, and his not too hasty convalescence under her grateful care.

The author's style adjusts itself to geographical demands with amazing elasticity. In Lynn she is far more sophisticated than in rural Yankeedom; in New York she becomes positively ur-

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bane, and on the beach reverts to the limpid simplicity of the desert-island romance—the resuscitation of Agatha being quite classic in its tone:

> Then he gave her food in little bits from a basket and sweet water out of a bottle. Agatha's soul revived within her and her heart became brave again.

The Revolt at Roskelly's. By William Caine. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Yule, benign embodiment of the democratic holiday spirit, goes to pass Christmas at Roskelly's, on the "Cornish Riviera." The "best people" finding his easy camaraderie most obnoxious, relegate him to the society of the "plebs," who of late years have come to infest the resort with too noisy mirth and too promiscuous friendliness. Among this outcast people and a few free spirits who belong to neither class, but are just natural human beings, Mr. Yule contents himself. Jovial and lavish as a man of his name and Santa Claus aspect should be, he heartens the despised plebs with sweetmeats and tobacco, with "dumb charades," a holiday dance, and a Christmas tree; and after playing Cupid in a grandfatherly way and showering the disdainful ones with works of art too choice for their appreciation, he confounds them all by producing a title to which every snob must perforce bow the knee.

The effect of the whole story can best be summarized as something between "The Third Floor Back" and Dickens's "Christmas Carol." As a satire on caste consciousness, while full of happy strokes, it is not more remarkable than the performances of numerous other young English writers, with whom this theme is nowadays very much in favor.

THE DUBLIN PARLIAMENT.

The End of the Irish Parliament. By Joseph R. Fisher. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $3 net.

Mr. Fisher has scarcely done himself justice in his title. The title suggests a book on the lines of Dr. J. R. Ardill's "The Closing of the Irish Parliament"; but Mr. Fisher's volume is more than this, and might better have been called "Ireland in the Last Thirty Years of the Dublin Parliament"; for Mr. Fisher has taken Townshend's tenure of the office of Lord Lieutenant—1767-72—as his starting point, and has carried the political and to some extent the agrarian and social history of Ireland from Townshend's struggle with the undertakers—otherwise the bosses of the House of Commons—down to the Union in 1800.

From every point of view, Mr. Fisher's starting point was well selected. Ireland in the eighteenth century had no Parliamentary history so long as the undertakers were in control, Poynings's law in operation, and the Lord Lieutenant non-resident. All the Parliamentary history of Ireland that has any significance was compressed into the period that lay between the Lord Lieutenancy of Townshend and that of Cornwallis. This was the period of the Octennial Act, Grattan's Parliament, the rejection of Pitt's commercial proposals, the trouble over the regency, the liberation of the Presbyterians from the fetters of the Test act, the enfranchisement of the Catholic forty-shilling freeholders, the movement for Parliamentary reform, and the movement for complete political emancipation of the Catholics that was to keep both Ireland and the United Kingdom disturbed until the breakdown of the old Toryism on this question in 1829.

The Irish Parliament as a representative institution has little interest for Mr. Fisher. Nowhere does he give even a description of it, or describe the franchises on which the House of Commons was elected. This omission is a defect, because it was the franchises, all modelled on those of England, and in the eighteenth century warped from their original basis as much as those in England, that put the Irish House of Commons so easily under the control of the large landed proprietors. The political strength of these magnates—particularly after the octennial act and the repeal of Poynings's law—lay in the number of members they could return to the House of Commons, and the power they could exercise over their docile nominees and through them over the lord lieutenants, who after Townshend's time were charged with the disagreeable and sordid business of House management. Mr. Fisher takes it for granted that his readers are familiar with all this, and familiar also with the social, agrarian, and ecclesiastical conditions of Ireland up to 1769, and after an introductory chapter in which he recalls the narrowly sectarian character of the Irish Parliament and the origin of Poynings's law, he proceeds with the history of the Parliament from 1769 to 1800. He goes over ground that has been travelled by Froude and Lecky and other writers on Ireland in the eighteenth century. But he imparts much freshness and value to his treatment of this period; for he has drawn upon the Dropmore, Carlisle, Rutland, Charlemont, and other manuscripts which have in recent years been published by the Historical Manuscripts Commission or have otherwise been made available. In particular, Mr. Fisher is the first writer on Irish history to draw to any extent on the Macartney papers; and as Macartney was Chief Secretary for Ireland during Townshend's struggle with the undertakers, much new light is thrown on this contest, on the character of the men with whom Townshend had to deal, and on the cost of the struggle which made his three years at Dublin Castle memorable. The victory, that in the long run meant so little—for other lord lieutenants and chief secretaries had to continue the sordid business that he took over—cost the Irish Treasury half a million sterling, with the creation of five new peerages as a make-weight.

More valuable still is the new light that Macartney's correspondence throws upon the social condition of the Irish people and the methods by which the landlords used the influence they possessed in Dublin and in county government to throw their burdens on the luckless and starving tenantry. The troubles of Ireland, apart from the never-ending struggle among the ascendancy group in Parliament for offices, sinecures, and peerages, even at this time, were agrarian rather than racial or religious. The landlord, the parson, and the priest all preyed in turn on the peasantry, until "the poor reduced wretches have hardly the skin of a potato left them to subsist upon." The outflow of rent to absentee landlords resident in England was, in 1773, estimated at above £700,000 a year. But when Blaquière, who succeeded Macartney as Chief Secretary, proposed a tax on the incomes of the absentees, Burke put his pen at their service; they were numbered among the Rockingham Whigs. The remonstrance which Burke wrote was signed by five great Whig peers. It killed Blaquière's proposal—"not the first, nor the last time," adds Mr. Fisher, "that Burke in his party zeal did a bad day's work for Ireland."

No Englishman nor Irishman who has written on Ireland in the last half of the eighteenth century has evinced a greater contempt than Mr. Fisher for the Irish Parliament and the Irishmen who worked that institution to their own ends. Macartney who helped Townshend to break down the undertaker system, and Castlereagh who was foremost in the work of sweeping the Parliament out of existence, are the only Irishmen of the period for whom Mr. Fisher has much admiration; and like other students of the subject, he regards the Parliament as too hopeless to have been reformed. But the value of his book does not lie only in the fresh light he has been able to throw on the Irish Parliament and its management; it lies also in his sidelights on the social and agrarian condition of Ireland, on the wretchedness and social squalor of the period, most of it due to corruption, vested interests, and mismanagement, for which, in the final result, ministries and Parliament at Westminster were responsible. England to-day is paying the penalty. Most of the social problems which are now pressing on Parliament had their beginnings in the England of this period of 1769 to 1800, and most of them were aggravated by the inpouring into England of Irish, who left home

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because of misrule and started a long-continued migration thither.

The Religion of Beauty in Woman. By Jefferson Butler Fletcher. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

The essays and studies collected in this volume deal with the love theories of the *dolce stil nuovo* and of the Renaissance. Many of the essays were already well-known and highly valued. They gain by collection: the lights of definition and allusion interplay most effectively throughout the volume.

The criticism of Cavalcanti forms perhaps the most notable portion of the work. Professor Fletcher's translation and exposition of the *Donna mi prega*, together with the admirable essay on Guido's philosophy of love, afford a welcome illumination of a poetic personality very rich in itself and very different from that of Dante or that of Guinizelli. To Cavalcanti love was necessarily desperate, deathly; for he felt, beyond all partial fulfilment, the insatiable craving for the fusion of soul with soul, and he had no faith in a divine all-blending love. From the thwarting actuality he turned, like Leopardi in a later age, to the contemplation of the ideal reflection of beauty within himself—an image, but an image utterly possessed.

Dante's love, on the contrary, was profoundly religious, and its essence was self-renunciation. Imperfect, uncentred, at first, while he enjoyed the salutation of Beatrice, it reached its centring when he had banished all thought of his own welfare, and the end of his love had become solely the versing of his lady's praise. One may question, however, whether the mature religion of Dante was as essentially an outgrowth of his love for Beatrice as Mr. Fletcher thinks it to have been—whether the "Vita nuova" and the "Divine Comedy" are directly continuous. Was not the vision of Dante wrought by the intense intellectual activity of the years in which the memory of Beatrice was darkened, and even betrayed? Is it fair to say that Dante's love reached out from Beatrice "to all humanity, and from humanity, by the leading of faith, to humanity's God?" It is true that in the early days of his love the salutation led him to think no man his enemy; but in later life he seems, like Giovanni Selva, rather to have loved men because they are God's children than to have loved God because He is man's Father.

Mr. Fletcher rightly takes the words

> Io mi son un che quando
> Amor mi spira, noto,

to imply that Dante regarded a certain spontaneity as the distinctive quality of the Sweet New Style, but says nothing of the fact that such spontaneity is hardly to be found in the verse of those whom Dante called his father and his betters in poetry. The love doctrine of Guinizelli was, in fact, a deliberate, even scholastic, product, and was accepted and developed as such by his lesser followers. But to the young Alighieri, truly gentle, rich in imagination, the curiously fashioned doctrine seemed a vital thing, and in the ardor of his fresh idealism he carried into life the beauty of what had been a poetic abstraction: the dry theory came to blossom, like the rod of Aaron. Naturally enough, then, Dante read into the poetry of gentleness a breathing of love that was in reality all his own.

The same miracle appeared in the Platonism of the Renaissance, and of its manifestation there Mr. Fletcher writes fully and with discernment. The Platonic doctrine, fostered in Medicean Florence, had its versified *summa* in Benivieni's "Ode of Love." This poem Mr. Fletcher prints, with an excellent translation and clear analytic comment. The doctrine spread swiftly through the brilliant circles of the Renaissance. Bembo was its pontiff, Castiglione its *acolyte*, Spenser its missionary, the whole courtly train its devotees. But while it remained for the most part a matter of literary interest and of social fashion, two men made of it a living gospel: Michelangelo, in old age, and Sidney, in his youth. For Michelangelo Mr. Fletcher has only passing references. The essay on Sidney is one of the most finished in the volume.

Such breadth of reading and such alertness in assimilation as Mr. Fletcher possesses are not without their perils. The essay on Dante and Beatrice represents an unfortunate yielding to the temptations that beset a writer so endowed. It seems to have been the noting of a certain similarity between the phenomena of the religious ecstasy of Methodist Bradley, as recorded in James's "Varieties of Religious Experience," and the phenomena of the ecstasies of Dante's love, as recorded in the "Vita nuova," that led to the writing of the essay. The comparison yields more loss than gain. Is it not self-evident that the psychological tatters of all ecstasies will be similar? Furthermore, the thesis of the essay as a whole is this: *any one* may find responsive truth in the "Vita nuova," for the experience there recorded is essentially that of "every Jack in love." Dante would have resented such a thesis. The little book was written for the few who truly have intelligence of love, and the experience it narrates is that of a sensitively aristocratic heart and mind. The comparison of Dante in his love for Beatrice to "any small boy who, unintimidated, resigns the core of his apple to another small boy," to "Nancy Sykes dumbly devoted to her abominable Bill," to "the rake of De Musset's poem suddenly pitiful of his poor hired drab," evinces a regrettable carelessness of real values and real distinctions.

This essay, and the preface and introductory essay that precede it, are marred by a flippancy of phrase and allusion to which the dignity of the subsequent studies offers a welcome contrast. To advance comparisons such as those just quoted, to advertise modernity by dint of uncalled-for references to Bernard Shaw, pragmatism, and "It Never Can Happen Again," to multiply, even with such apology as quotation marks afford, words and phrases like "stuffed with sawdust," "beauty-show," "puppy love," and "damfoolishness," is to captivate the sophomore, no doubt; but it is also to risk the esteem of a maturer audience.

The Business of Congress. By Samuel W. McCall. New York: Lemcke & Buechner. $1.50.

By revising and publishing these lectures, delivered at Columbia University two years ago, Representative McCall has produced a volume which usefully supplements the existing sources of information concerning his subject. It is neither a parliamentary manual nor a political history nor an essay on the philosophy of government which he has given us, but a book which pleasingly blends the qualities of all three. Intended to give a working knowledge of the way in which Congress actually transacts business, the lectures necessarily went at some length into the organization of the House, the choice and powers of committees, the introduction and advancing of bills, together with much relating to rules and practices; but a great deal of concrete and personal detail is given by way of illustration, while genial or shrewd remarks on the political interpretation of changes and events in Congress are frequent. Nearly all of Mr. McCall's pages are readable and many of them are filled with instruction or fruitful suggestion.

The Massachusetts Representative is continually in this book adducing English precedents. By so much he makes his study one in comparative government. Looking for likenesses or equivalents, he is fond of showing how differing forms come to the same thing in effect. An instance of this is his maintaining (p. 50) that Congress has virtually as much benefit from the advice of Cabinet Ministers in the matter of supply bills affecting their departments as has the House of Commons. The advice is given, to be sure, not on the floor of the House, but in the room of a committee; but the American plan is not so far away from the English as some suppose. Later (p. 193, *seq.*) Mr. McCall takes a somewhat different line, and argues for the

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superiority of the British system, which he would like to see more closely imitated in this country. He justly observes that if our members of the Cabinet were compelled to attend the House and to be prepared to explain and defend their policies, it would make impossible some of the appointments to the office which we have had. Equally out of the common view is the author's contention that it would be a good thing for the House of Representatives if we could have in it, like the House of Commons, captains of industry and some men of great wealth—he specifies Morgan, Carnegie, and others—since, "where all classes are directly represented, the whole circle of fact will be known and one class will not be so likely to fatten upon the others."

Resisting the temptation to cite further, we merely point out that, in the matter of the rules of Congress, the hair has grown while Mr. McCall was shaving, the radical departures made by the Democratic majority in the Sixty-second Congress having made some of his statements antiquated. In a few cases he has been able to indicate this in footnotes.

Notes

The text of "The Lure of the Garden," announced by The Century Co., is furnished by Hildegarde Hawthorne, and full-page illustrations in color are prepared by Jules Guérin, Maxfield Parrish, Anna Whelan Betts, Ivanowski, and others; there will also be illustrations in black and white from photographs.

The Century Co. also has in hand "Four Months in Spain," by Harry A. Franck; "Toddie," by Gilbert Watson, a Scotch author, and "Written English," prepared in collaboration by John Erskine and Helen Erskine.

Romain Rolland's "Life of Tolstoi" will be brought out this autumn by E. P. Dutton & Co. The same firm will publish Arnold Bennett's "Hilda Lessways" and Pierre de Coulevain's "Heart of Life."

"More Mastersingers," by Filson Young; "Favorite Poems in English," compiled by Burton E. Stevenson, and the translation into English of Rolland's "Jean-Christophe in Paris," which is the sequel of "Jean-Christophe," are in preparation by Henry Holt & Co.

The second volume of A. Maurice Low's "The American People, a Study in National Psychology" is promised by Houghton Mifflin Co. for the autumn.

Clayton Hamilton is at work on a life of Stevenson. The book will be issued by the Baker & Taylor Co.

In "My Own Story," which the Putnams promise before long, Princess Louisa of Tuscany gives the history of the events which led up to her flight from the court of Saxony.

Among the autumn books announced by Thomas Y. Crowell Co. we note three for boys: "The Aeroplane at Silver Fox Farm," "Boy Scouts in the Maine Woods," both by James Otis, and "The Unmannerly Tiger and Other Korean Tales," by Dr. William Elliot Griffis.

The Tennysonian celebrations which are now going on at Somersby, England, include an address by the Oxford professor of poetry, Dr. Warren, on "Tennyson: the Poet in the Poet's Land"; "Memories of the Tennyson's at Somersby," by Canon Rawnsley; speeches by J. Cuming Walters and E. Hartley Coleridge, and recitations of several of Tennyson's poems.

The two journeys of William Morris to Iceland, in 1871 and 1873, were, it is well known, the turning point in his life, dividing his literary composition into the works that go with "The Earthly Paradise" and those that go with "Sigurd the Volsung." It has been known, too, that he kept a diary of these, to him, momentous travels. "This diary," says Mackail, in the Biography, "scribbled from day to day on the spot, was carefully written out by him when he came home, and afterwards revised and written out again with some idea of publishing it. This idea, however, considered and deferred more than once, was finally rejected by him towards the end of his life. The extracts here are from the revised manuscript given by him to Mrs. Burne-Jones in 1873." Of the four new volumes now added by Longmans, Green & Co. to their superb edition of "The Collected Works of William Morris," the greatest interest will, therefore, attach to the eighth, which gives in full form the two "Journals of Travel in Iceland." Much of the narrative, it must be admitted, consists of that continuous and changing description of natural scenery which palls very quickly on the reader, and it may be for this reason that Morris himself withheld the Journals from publication; but the brave, romantic character of the man is revealed on every page, and there are many amusing stories of his impulsiveness and absent-mindedness. Volume VII of this edition contains a number of translations from the Icelandic, and the Introduction, by Miss May Morris, tells the story of Morris's acquaintance with Magnússon, and of their work together. Not the least interesting thing in these two volumes is Miss Morris's account of the family life at Kelmscott, while the master of the house was in Iceland. Rossetti was occupying the famous Tapestry-Room, and working in his strange, lonely way. "I can see the rather broad figure," writes Miss Morris, "tramping away doggedly over the flat green meadows, in search of exercise and air enough to keep in health for the day's work; I can see him returning after dark with a burden of weariness upon him—even the young child in pauses of happy playhours felt the loneliness of it."

The other two volumes (V and VI) of the present instalment give the concluding parts of "The Earthly Paradise." As in the Introductions to the earlier volumes of the poem, Miss Morris writes a clear account of the growth of the various tales and of the various forms they passed through. A good deal of rejected material is printed, whether wisely or not we need not say. Three of these rejected stanzas, designed presumably for the month of October or November, may be transcribed:

Come forth, O love, to-day, although the earth
Is pale and sad with death of many things
And shrouds the memory of her months of mirth
And dulls the thoughts of coming winter's stings
With haze of morns and faint gray evenings
Of windless rain: come forth and drive from me
These dreary thoughts of what my life may be.

With hardened heart to pass the once loved place
Where I have felt the unforgotten kiss,
With hardened heart to think upon the face
Whose sight filled day and night for me with bliss,
With hardened heart to live alone—for this;
The praises of the careless world to hear,
Listless with fear of death, and death anear.

Ah it may be, but while we both forget
That we and all our love were made to die,
While fear our foe is not our master yet,
Unsatiate of life, we pensively
May watch the lives of other men go by,
In listening the tales that have been told
For we are young, although the years grow old.

It is certainly too early to pass final judgment upon the woman suffrage agitation in England; perhaps, also, it is too late to treat the movement with either irritation or contempt. Whatever one may think about it, however, the account which E. Sylvia Pankhurst gives in "The Suffragette" (Sturgis & Walton Co.) may at least be credited as a first-hand and, so far as it goes, truthful story of this extraordinary episode. We say truthful so far as it goes, because, while Miss Pankhurst's sincerity and devotion are evident, she hints not the least suspicion that even the most extravagant doings of the suffragettes violated either decency or good manners; but, on the contrary, relates in fullest detail all the numerous exhibitions of lawlessness with characteristic soberness, and without even a saving dash of humor. As an arsenal of facts, at least, the book has distinct value. In one important respect, moreover, quite apart from its bearing on the suffrage question, the volume is a fearful indictment of present-day England, its government, and its people; and that is in the matter of prison administration. Miss Pankhurst's circumstantial recital, in effectively simple language, of the foul conditions of English prisons, of the brutal and inhuman treatment of some of the suffragettes, and of the horrors of forced feeding, is enough to stir the blood of the most indifferent. For what is virtually a revival of torture, joined, in case of some of the suffragette trials, to direct intimations of the kind of rulings expected from the courts, the home secretary, Herbert Gladstone, seems to have a good deal to answer for.

"Daniel Webster: A Vindication, With Other Historical Essays," by William Cleaver Wilkinson, is published by Funk & Wagnalls Company. Professor Wilkinson is the author of many books on biblical and classical subjects, of which the best known is perhaps the "Preparatory Greek Course in English." Something above half of the present work is devoted to Webster, the "other essays" having been added apparently to fill out the volume. At least, apart from the long essay on Webster, it would be hard to justify the publication. The vindication, however, will have its use, though it might easily have been shorter. It has obviously been a labor of love. Professor Wilkinson admits frankly that he is a passionate admirer of Webster, and if this has its disadvantages, it has also its advantages, for it has made him an ardent collector of Webster ma-

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terial during a long life. The essay is about equally divided between a vindication of the public and the private life of Webster. The vindication of his public life centres in the justification of the Seventh of March Speech, with the result that Webster's conduct is found to have been conscientious, consistent, patriotic, wise, and right. Most historians now admit that Webster acted conscientiously and consistently, while the author's passionate defence of his conduct as patriotic, wise, and right will leave the present generation, which cannot remember the heated controversies of the civil war period, a little cold. The vindication of Webster's private life was rather more worth doing. Professor Wilkinson has given immense pains to tracing to their source the innumerable stories of Webster's alleged intemperance and immoralities, and he makes it reasonably certain that the stories have no sufficient foundation in fact. That the book will do much to destroy the popular tradition is hardly to be expected, for popular traditions are difficult to destroy when they are once well fixed, and few are more firmly fixed than that of the laxity of Webster's private life. However, it is well worth while to have a careful analysis of the evidence upon which the tradition rests.

To see Mexico as Mary Barton has represented it in her "Impressions of Mexico" (*Macmillan*) is almost to share in a discovery. It is a land for the artist; and she does not hesitate to compare the atmosphere enveloping Popocatapetl with that of the Alps, or the gorge of Necaxa with the panorama of the Himalayas at Darjeeling, or Lake Patzcuaro with Como. In the series of twenty reproductions from her paintings, exhibited in London, as in the narrative accompaniment, there is a charming display of temperament and personality; in both, an antipathy for the Mexican commonplace; in both, an absolute honesty of expression, allied with a sublime faith in the British point of view. The result is an engaging combination of whimsical impatience at the human incidents of Mexican life and breathless adoration of the soft blue of such mountain peaks as Orizaba. The keynote of the whole story is color, and the printed page often recalls to mind the experiments of Stephen Crane. What one misses is the absence of comment on the work of Mexican painters. Ceramics no longer stands for the national art of Mexico; and Cabrera, Ramírez, and Parra have won recognition in France for precisely those aspects of light and transparence in Mexican waters and skies which appeal so strongly to the author. Her opinion on the reputed Titian at Tzintzuntzan, which she could have seen without much difficulty, would have been worth having. In spite of deficiencies of this sort, and in spite of her hasty judgments on the music and drama of the country which was for a time the home of la Malibran and of Barili, Adelina Patti's uncle and teacher, this book does much to reveal that better Mexico so generally neglected by writers.

Hidden away in volumes of the Nueva Biblioteca de Autores Españoles there has been appearing, for some years past, a study of the origins of the novel which, though of the first importance, does not seem to have attracted general attention. Professed Spanish students have, of course, reckoned with it; but its scope is far wider and should appeal to every one interested in European literature who can at all find his way through simple Spanish prose. It consists of the introductions prefixed by Menéndez y Pelayo to the three volumes which have so far been published (1905, 1907, 1910), of reprints of early Spanish novels supplementary to those that had already appeared in Rivadeneyra's original Biblioteca. Yet, to speak of them as "introductions" is hardly to deal adequately with their weightiness. They occupy the whole of the first volume, a large octavo of 532 pages, 140 pages of the second volume, and 289 pages of the third. A concluding part will come with the fourth volume and will deal with the picaresque novel and other analogous forms, such as satirical colloquies. The whole will form an imposing study of the history of the novel in Spain and of its affiliations by origin and influence throughout Europe and the East, worthy to stand beside its author's "Historia de las ideas estéticas en España," and form with the reprints of novels in these volumes and in others of the Biblioteca a worthy pendant to the series of volumes of his Antología de poetas líricos castellanos. Beginning with a sketch of the novel in classical antiquity, he passes to the Oriental tale and its transmission through Spain to the Western peoples. This, though not written by a professed Orientalist, is easily the fullest and clearest statement of the whole subject and its tangle of problems. Then follows the influence of these stories in mediæval Spanish literature, where we meet the picturesque figures of Raimundo Lúlio, Fray Anselmo de Turmeda, and the Archpriest of Hita. Of the two Franciscans, the missionary and the pervert to Islam, this is by far the best and fullest easily accessible account. The same can be said of the history, above 170 pages in length, of the rise and fall of the romances of chivalry in all their cycles. It is a learned and delightful commentary on the catalogue of Don Quixote's library. The question of the origin of the "Amadís" is handled with especial wealth and keenness. The novel of sentiment, such as the "Carcel de Amor," the historical novels which played such mischief among the earlier historians of the reconquest, and the pastoral novel, the "Dianas" and the rest, leading up to the "Galatea" of Cervantes, follow in order. The introduction to the second volume deals with collections of stories and short tales, mostly under the influence of the Italian novelists; that to the third is an elaborate and illuminating treatment of the "Celestina" and all its descendants.

It is impossible to give a list of the texts reprinted in the second and third volumes. They are professedly supplemental to those already printed in Rivadeneyra, those which are to appear elsewhere in this new series, and those which are generally accessible in other modern reprints. To Sr. Menéndez y Pelayo it was evidently a relief that for some of the "Celestinas" he could refer to the collection of Libros Raros y Curiosos, and with regard to those that he does reprint he hopes that the antique orthography and learned apparatus will be a kind of thorn hedge to ward off "el profano vulgo." But some mention should be made of another series of volumes in this Biblioteca which are bringing reprints of important romances of chivalry. Two have appeared, edited by Prof. Bonilla y San Martín, and a third is promised which will contain an elaborate historical study of chivalry and its romances, of their introduction into Spain, and of the different Spanish cycles. A bibliography down to 1615 will be added. So far reprinted are the "Baladro del sabio Merlín" and the "Demanda del Sancto Grial," "Don Tristán de Leonís," "Tablante de Ricamonte," and "Carlos Maynes" from an Escurial MS. In the second volume are "Palmerín de Inglaterra," the "Destrucción de Jerusalem," "Roberto el Diablo," "Clamades y Clarmonda," "Oliveros de Castilla y Artús Dalgarbe" (with a great many wood cuts), "Hystoria del rey Canamor y del infante Turian su hijo," "Conde Partinuples." A glossary is added, variant readings to the "Palmerín," and an index of proper names. "Tirant lo Blanch," with a Spanish translation, is promised, for a separate volume of the Biblioteca.

Lippincott publishes a second edition of Lieber's "Manual of Political Ethics." The work has been revised and edited by Prof. Theodore D. Woolsey, and President Nicholas Murray Butler has written an introduction, in which he points out that, although the book was written nearly three-quarters of a century ago, its principles, disquisitions, and ideals have immediate application to the political action of our own day. The work has been very little changed from its original form. Of the notes prepared by Dr. Lieber, only those which were of primary value or which modified or corrected the text have been inserted, and a very few notes by the editor have been added.

Three writers of some distinction have died recently in France: Viscount Albert Révérand, an authority on the subject of French peerages, who for a number of years edited the "Annuaire de la noblesse de France" and produced a "Dictionnaire historique" of about ten thousand titled persons beginning with the opening of the eighteenth century; Maurice Maindron, the author of several romances, whose setting is laid chiefly in the sixteenth century; Jean de Mitty—his real name was Golfineanu and he was born in Rumania—a student of Stendhal who discovered and published the original manuscript of "Lucien Leuwen."

The death is announced of Prof. Georg Wenker, the chief librarian of the University of Marburg, aged fifty-nine. He had written a number of works on the German dialects, among them "Verschiebung des Stammsilbenauslauts im Germanischen," "Sprachatlas von Nord- und Mitteldeutschland," and "Sprachatlas des Deutschen Reiches."

The death is reported from Monteagle, Tenn., in his eighty-second year, of the Rev. Oscar Penn Fitzgerald, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, and author of the following works: "California Sketches," "Christian Growth," "Glimpses of Truth," "Life of McFerrin," "Dr. Summers, A Life Study," "Centenary Cameos," "Bible Nights," "Eminent Methodists," "The Whetstone," "The Epworth Book," "Judge Longstreet," "The Day and the Word," "Sunset Views," and "Upper Room Meditations."

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Science

The Newer Spiritualism. By Frank Podmore. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2.75 net.

It is our good fortune that before Frank Podmore went to join Gurney and Myers and Hodgson and James in the ghostly realm where at least guessing ceases, he left us his own last guess on spirit communication in a volume which worthily completes his long study of this difficult question. Indeed, the word "guess" is quite inappropriate to this book, for it is a careful exposition and judicious analysis of the recent evidence on the subject and is marked by an entire lack of that obvious prejudice and easy wit which rob so many books on each side of the spiritistic controversy of much of their value. The volume has no surprises and its outcome is exactly what one would be led to expect by the author's previous works. It simply brings the discussion of the question up to date; but certainly it is of no small interest to know exactly what Podmore thought of the more recent discoveries of psychical research.

The book overlaps to some extent the author's previous work on the same subject, "Modern Spiritualism." This appeared in 1902 in two large volumes and covered the whole period between the witches and the "controls." Both books deal with Daniel Douglas Home, and the present one takes up the story of Eusapia Palladino and of Mrs. Piper where the previous work had left it. "The Newer Spiritualism" falls naturally into two parts: the first devoted to physical phenomena, the second and more important to the question of trance messages. In the former, the two most striking of the physical mediums —Home and Palladino—are taken as typical and studied with some care. Podmore's treatment of Home is particularly characteristic of his keenly critical but open mind. In contrast to some writers who refuse to consider Home at all on the ground of unsatisfactory records, Podmore devotes over fifty pages to a careful analysis of the records that we have. And in equal contrast to other writers who have accepted Home's cases of levitation (largely on the ground of his moral character), our author is able to point out exactly where the evidence is weak, and ventures to show that the famous medium's reputation for strict honesty rests on very flimsy foundations. Eusapia Palladino fares no better before his keen analysis, and the final conclusion to which he leads the reader is that the physical phenomena of spiritualism may be amply explained by sleight-of-hand on the part of the medium and an occasional lapse of attention on the part of the sitter.

No such easy explanation is to be sought for in the case of the purely psychical phenomena. And with fraud eliminated, there are evidently three possible lines of explanation open. One is the naturalistic which seeks to write down all that seems startling as due to the regular laws of normal or abnormal psychology, and relegates all that cannot be treated thus to a possibly faulty record. The second uses all these means but finds certain outstanding facts for whose explanation it appeals to telepathy. The third hypothesis is, of course, that of "spiritualism." Podmore's treatment of the subject is remarkably open-minded, and he recognizes that the question cannot yet be fully answered; but he does not hesitate to uphold stoutly his own tentative explanation, which is that involving telepathy.

The naturalistic hypothesis our author does not consider directly and in detail, but his exposition of the phenomena makes such an explanation seem quite out of the question—unless, indeed, one falls back upon the easy appeal to a "faulty record" wherever one meets with difficulties. The spiritualistic hypothesis is taken very seriously and tested with care. Some of the evidence (especially in the case of cross-correspondencies) might be put more persuasively, but, on the whole, a strong case is made out for the spirits. And yet in every instance but one he shows that the hypothesis of telepathy would furnish at least an equally satisfactory explanation. The exception referred to is the "Lethe Incident," which occurred in the spring of 1908, and in which the "Piper-Myers" exhibited an acquaintance with an obscure story of Ovid's which (so far as could be ascertained) neither Mrs. Piper nor the sitter nor any one connected with them had ever read. Podmore points out two subordinate features of the case which somewhat weaken its evidential value; and it is barely possible to explain it on the theory of subconscious memory with telepathy—or, of course, by a much more sweeping kind of telepathy or by clairvoyance, once you admit such things. But the spiritistic hypothesis would certainly seem the simpler, if the case were only reinforced by others equally good. Podmore's comment on it is as follows:

> It must, I think, be admitted on all hands that the method of answering the Lethe question was well devised; that this is precisely the kind of evidence demanded for the proof of spirit identity; and that, though no single case can, of course, be conclusive, yet that if evidence of this kind were multiplied the presumption in favor of the reality of spirit communication might at length become irresistible. Taken by itself, however, the new evidence can hardly be claimed as strong enough appreciably to weaken the presumption against the authenticity of these spirit messages derived from the whole experience of the past. . . . The improbabilities involved in any of the suggested alternatives are at least equally serious. The wisest counsel, if also the most difficult to follow, is to hold our judgment in suspense.

To some extent this case is counterbalanced by the interesting "Sevens Incident," which also occurred in the spring of 1908, and in which a most beautiful cross-correspondence was completely explained by telepathy from the living—namely by an idea in the mind of Mr. Piddington himself, which he had embodied in a "posthumous letter," written by him at the time. This case is one of the most persuasive pieces of evidence on record for the existence of telepathy; and incidentally also it "invalidates by anticipation all evidence for the agency of the dead which might have been derived from 'posthumous' letters, and has thus deprived us of what would have seemed an important, though not, of course, a crucial test."

But while Podmore regards the evidence educed by psychical research as quite insufficient to prove spirit communication, he by no means regards the investigation of these phenomena as worthless. On the contrary, the prospect of really valuable discoveries in the field seems to him particularly bright.

> The most promising line of inquiry at the present time would seem to consist in the possible indications of a directing and organizing intelligence to be found by careful comparison of the scripts of the several autonomists. . . . The evidence so far presented will not, it seems, admit of a positive conclusion. But even while the investigation is still incomplete it is clear that the results so far attained are worth all the labor that has been spent upon them. If a final verdict must be deferred until further investigation shall have enlightened our ignorance, and shall enable us to give a decisive answer to the question whether these dark sayings proceed from the dead or the living, we need not wait to recognize that even now there are other, if perhaps less momentous, issues involved which concern our immediate interests. . . . If we reject for the present, at least, the explanation suggested by many of the utterances themselves, that of communication from the dead, we must seek for some other cause adequate to the effects. There remains only the agency which has been provisionally named telepathy, but which no one has yet ventured to define in other than negative terms, as communication apart from the recognized sensory channels. The establishment of such a faculty, if only as a vestige of a primitive mode of sensibility, now superseded by articulate speech, would surely be a result worth all the labor spent in the vineyard.

"Stories of Useful Inventions," by S. E. Forman, is in the Century Company's list of autumn books.

Lieut.-Col. Lawrence Laurenson Bruff, Ordnance Corps, U. S. A., died on Friday of last week at Philadelphia, aged fifty-nine. He was for a number of years an instructor

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at the Military Academy, West Point, and was the author of several books, among them "Gunpowder and Interior Ballistics," "Exterior Ballistics," and "Ordnance and Gunnery."

Drama

NOTES ON GERMAN DRAMA.

Carl Hauptmann's latest dramatic work, "Napoleon Bonaparte" (Munich: Georg D. W. Callwey), is of vast proportions. It is in two parts, the first devoted to the citizen Bonaparte, the second to the Emperor. The prelude on the coast of Corsica effectively introduces to the reader the parents of Bonaparte, fugitives in the revolution which convulses the island, and suggests qualities later to be consummated in the son. With its rugged shepherd types against the background of a rough cave among jagged rocks, its atmosphere of unrest within and danger without, it attunes the reader to the storm and stress of the hero's future career, who is at the time peacefully slumbering in a basket suspended from the donkey that carried his mother to safety. The first act begins with Bonaparte's conquest of the fascinating Josephine and presents a vivid picture of the lightsome and frivolous spirit of the Directoire. As the poet follows Napoleon through his triumphant Mediterranean career, he loses no opportunity to show the profound impression made by the Corsican's imperious personality upon the wily men of the world whom he meets in diplomatic conference, upon the soldiers whom he inspires with his own ambition, courage, and energy, and even upon those whose kingdom is not of this world, as is amply illustrated in the scene in the convent of Tolentino. A peculiar conceit of the poet is the "pale young man in chains," who, invisible to any but Bonaparte, appears before him at critical moments and warns him—it is his starved and fettered conscience. It is he who wrings from him the promise of a truly democratic constitution for France, which Bonaparte calls the first and last idea and the only legacy of the great Revolution.

In the second part, of four acts, the author dramatically groups the events which took place during the brief reign of Napoleon as Emperor of France and sovereign of the greater part of Western Europe, until his enforced abdication, and the postlude brings his death on St. Helena. The spirit of the work approaches classical standards more closely than any other historical drama that has come from the pens of the Young Germans. The poet's conception of his hero is human; he pictures the Corsican superman in his towering strength, but also in those moments when he proves his kinship to the humblest mortal. Of the numerous characters, the most important stand out against the shifting background with remarkable vitality. The style, too, is almost entirely free from the mannerisms which usually mar the beauty of the author's prose. Viewed as a whole, the work seems to indicate a turn in the road of Carl Hauptmann's development, full of promise to those who have faith in his genius.

Hermann Bahr's comedy in three acts, "Die Kinder" (Berlin: S. Fischer) is based upon a problem which he has treated in his story, "Die Stimme des Bluts," and at the beginning might well be taken for a domestic tragedy. For the two young people who so charmingly play at the duel of sex have hardly agreed to be married when the father of the girl, a physician of peasant descent, tells the suitor that he is his son. But the supposed father of the young man, the old count who formerly owned the castle which the doctor has transformed into a villa, had already been summoned, and on learning of the difficulty in the way of his heir's happiness, is also forced into a confession and admits that he is the father of the girl whom the doctor supposed to be his daughter. Thus the tragedy is averted and the conflict dissolved in a comedy of errors speedily brought to a happy ending. It is easy to note the undercurrent of satire in the juxtaposition of the girl who is proud of her father's plebeian origin and the qualities of character which made him achieve professional fame, social position, and wealth, and the young man who represents the staid conservative traditions and conventions of an old aristocracy. But Bahr adds another strong touch of satire in the introduction of a visitor who seeks an interview with the doctor and is revealed to him as the offspring of a long-forgotten student's love. This Bayerlein, a curiously unconventional, hale and hearty fellow, is one of the author's most original creations; he does not come to reproach or make any claims upon the father hitherto unknown to him, but simply to pay his respects to the illustrious progenitor whose career the mother had followed in the papers with no little interest. His mother had brought him up single-handed; now he was taking care of her, had assured her comfort, and both with philosophical acceptance bore the doctor no grudge. The work is really delightful and sparkles with the bright and graceful wit which distinguishes all of Bahr's plays.

Ludwig Thoma's one-act farce, "Erster Klasse" (imported by G. E. Stechert), is an admirable specimen of the author's broad, rollicking humor. The scene is a first-class car in a Bavarian express train, and many of the funny situations are possible only in that locality. But the *dramatis personæ* are cleverly divided among Bavarians and Prussians whose racial characteristics challenge amusing comparisons. The main interest, however, centres, as usual, in the native rustics, portrayed by the author with an amazing understanding for their robust and fecund good-nature.

Daniel Frohman announces that the Lyceum Theatre will reopen the first week in September with a new American comedy, "Thy Neighbor's Wife," with Arthur Byron, Frederick Tilden, Pamela Gaythorne, and Alice John in the cast.

Rehearsals of George Bronson-Howard's new play, "Snobs," with Frank McIntyre in the leading part, have begun at the Hudson Theatre, where it will be seen on September 4.

Henry B. Harris will open the Harris Theatre, formerly the Hackett, on Thursday, August 31, with Rose Stahl in Charles Klein's new play, "Maggie Pepper."

John Cort announces his plans for the coming season, which include a revival of "Two Women" with Leslie Carter and "The Earl of Pawtucket" with Lawrence D'Orsay. New plays are "Sadie," dramatized from Karl Harriman's novel, by Rupert Hughes, with Theodore Roberts, Thurlow Bergen, Frank Campau, and Fernanda Eliseu in the cast; "Jingaboo," a musical farce by Leo Ditrichstein, with music by Arthur Prior, and "The Fox," a detective play by Lee Arthur.

William A. Brady will start the preliminary season at his new theatre, The Playhouse, on Monday, August 28, with Douglas Fairbanks in "A Gentleman of Leisure," by John Stapleton and P. G. Wodehouse. Early in October he expects to begin the first season of the regular company, headed by Grace George. Other members will be Allan Aynesworth, who has played leading parts in London for fifteen years, and Lyn Harding, a well-known English character actor. The opening play will be "The Earth," by James Fagan, with Miss George in the part played in London by Lena Ashwell, and Messrs. Aynesworth and Harding in their original parts. This will be followed by "Much Ado About Nothing," and for this performance the company will be strengthened. Mr. Brady hopes to establish a repertory theatre, with constant changes of bill, and to that end is making arrangements for the production of new plays by George Broadhurst, Thompson Buchanan, Granville Barker, Cicely Hamilton, and Margaret Mayo, as well as a new fairy play at Christmas time. He will revive "Divorçons," "Pygmalion and Galatea," "The School for Scandal," and old comedies by Molière and Congreve. Other plays to be produced under his management include Justin Huntley McCarthy's "Charlemagne, the Conqueror," in which Robert Mantell will be seen, and the same author's "The O'Flynn"; a new play, by Harrison Rhodes, for Thomas A. Wise, and George Broadhurst's "Bought and Paid For," for Charles Richman. In November, at the Manhattan Opera House, he will produce a new American melodrama, and will also have two musical comedies, "The Violet Widow," by Dorothy Usner, and "The Merry Bachelors."

According to the critic of the London

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Times the production of Karl Schoenherr's "Glaube und Heimat" at His Majesty's Theatre by the German Play Society was well worth the effort.

Music

The Edward MacDowell Memorial Association announces a music festival to be given on its pageant stage at Peterborough, N. H., on August 16 and 18. There will also be a concert in the Town Hall on the 17th. The orchestra will be led by Eusebius Hood and W. H. Humiston.

Maurice Renaud was a tower of strength to Oscar Hammerstein during his four years of opera at the Manhattan. He was engaged for forty performances in the last season, but Hammerstein found him so strong a magnet that he gave him fourteen more appearances. He has now procured him as his leading artist for the performances next season in his newly built London Opera House, up to January, when the great French baritone returns to America. Lina Cavalieri, Marguerite D'Alvarez, and Orville Harrold will also be taken over from his former New York company. The names of the other singers engaged by him are less familiar. He pretends to have three "Carusos," the list of his tenors including, besides Harrold, Mario Ansaldi, Frank Pollock, Fred Régis, Fernand Leraux. The sopranos will be Cavalieri, Isabeau Catalan, Victoria Fer, Aline Vallandri, Eva Oldhanski, Felicia Lyne, L. Merlin. Mezzo-sopranos and altos: D'Alvarez, Tinka-Joseki, Jeane Duchêne, Nina Ratti, Antoinette Kerlane. Baritones: Renaud, José Danse, Georges Chadal, M. Figarella, Arthur Phillips. Mario Ellandri. Basses: Jean Perkin, Enzo Bozano, Fred. Combe, Giuseppe de Grazia. Among the novelties to be presented are "Quo Vadis," "Don Quixote," and "The Violinmaker of Cremona."

A great treat evidently awaits the lovers of good singing and good songs in the impending appearance in this country of the famous German lieder singer, Elena Gerhardt, who will make her American début at Carnegie Hall on January 12. She is as popular in England as in Germany, and at her last appearance in London not only was the hall full, but many were unable to find seats. One reason for her success is that she sings songs by the composers who were masters of melody, among them Jensen, Rubinstein, Liszt, and Franz. Nikisch paid her the significant compliment of playing the piano parts, as he had done before.

Of Cadman's charming song, "Land of the Sky-Blue Water," tens of thousands of copies have been sold. The royalties enabled this promising young composer, who was seriously ill, to go to New Mexico, where he completely recovered his health. Lillian Nordica is particularly interested in him; in her Western recitals last season she sang several of his songs, and commissioned him to write a cycle for her on Homeric texts. This is now completed, and bears the title, "To Odysseus."

At last New York will hear Liszt's wonderful Dante Symphony, which Weingartner regards as even more powerful than his "Faust" symphony, and of which Wagner said it was "the creative act of a redeeming genius," "one of the most astounding deeds in music." It will be performed by the Philharmonic Orchestra in Carnegie Hall next December, under the new conductor, Josef Stransky. The choral part will be sung by the MacDowell Chorus. The soloist of this concert will be Arthur Friedheim. It will be the great event of the musical season.

The MacDowell Chorus, Kurt Schindler, conductor, has completed plans for the season of 1911-12, and the directors announce that the first concert will take place in Carnegie Hall, on Monday evening, December 12, when the chorus, assisted by the Philharmonic Society and prominent soloists, will present Liszt's "Legend of St. Elizabeth," in commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of the composer's birth. The second concert will be given in March.

For forty years the late Albert Schatz of Rostock was at work on a history and dictionary of operas from the earliest time to 1900. Some years ago the United States government purchased his collection of more than 12,000 opera librettos. During his recent trip in Europe Mr. Sonneck, chief of the Division of Music of the Library of Congress, purchased also the entire collection of Schatz's manuscripts, data, and correspondence, which makes this one of the most precious treasures of that library. The chief value of these records lies in the complete and authoritative information given regarding the early history of opera. One of the details is a chronological record of performances of Wagner's operas.

Hans Richter, having virtually ended his career as conductor, has purchased a residence at Bayreuth, where he intends to start a school for dramatic singing. He is one of the conductors during this summer's Wagner festival in the Bayreuth Theatre, to which, by the way, automobiles may, for the first time, ascend this summer.

Art

EDWIN A. ABBEY, N.A., R.A.

The late Edwin A. Abbey made one of those perfectly normal successes that seem to belie the romantic traditions of the painter's craft. At an early age the young Pennsylvanian was already a popular illustrator. For the grace and petulance of young womanhood he had an understanding eye. Indeed, it is doubtful if in his later years and in his most ambitious mural paintings he ever did anything more wholly charming and more artistically complete than the two series of pen drawings in which he evoked the heroines of Shakespeare and Herrick. Of these idyllic designs his historical and decorative painting was merely an expansion. Under the stimulus of his growing fame he essayed the larger dramatic themes, and always with a conscientiousness that was impressive; but many of his admirers regretted the admirable illustrator that was submerged in the Royal Academy exhibitor. Would not the Grail decorations in the Boston Public Library look better in the old sensitive penstroke and opposite the necessary explanatory text? The thought qualifies one's admiration for those beautiful decorations.

Unlike the greater number of his American contemporaries Abbey was exempt from the influence of Paris. Whether consciously or by some inconscient atavism, he continued the mood and the manner of the Georgian and early Victorian illustrators. Stothard might have been his grandfather in art, "Dicky" Doyle his granduncle. His affinity with such draughtsmen as Du Maurier and the illustrators of *Punch* generally was clear enough, and the readiness with which he attached himself to the later Pre-Raphaelite tradition is significant. In maturity Abbey tried to paint about as Millais had painted in his teens. These analogies are suggested not to belittle a charming talent, but to define it, and more especially to show that when Abbey moved to England he came in a sense to his own. His success was immediate. His qualities were more highly appreciated in England than they would have been here. For years his Academy contributions shared with Sargent's the acclaim of the public and the press. His admitted superiority in historical painting made it natural that he, rather than an English artist, should be commanded to paint the coronation of Edward VII. In fact it is doubtful if he would have had the chance to execute his monumental designs for Boston and Harrisburg had not his London fame rebounded to his native shores.

In many respects his brilliant career recalls that of his predecessor and fellow Pennsylvanian, Benjamin West. Quite as West rose to fame by carrying out the precepts of Sir Joshua Reynolds and furnishing a kind of art that won the theoretical approval of the judicious, Abbey prevailed by frankly accepting the established traditions of the Academy picture while enhancing it by a more learned and conscientious workmanship. It was the second time that an American had outacademied the Royal Academy, and in both instances British magnanimity applauded the feat with enthusiasm. We have already shown that an act of adaptation which in most American artists would seem a recreancy was in Abbey merely the legitimate outcome of his temperament. On the other hand his place in art will be decided largely by the worth of the tradition to which he attached himself. It is the fashion to decry the British anecdotal picture, and the glamour of the Pre-Raphaelites is distinctly waning. Abbey's repute as decorator and historical painter will rise no higher than that of his sponsors, and any complete rehabilitation of these British schools seems unlikely. We feel that the Her-

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rick and Shakespeare illustrations will outwear the mural paintings and that notable succession of Royal Academy sensations.

If anything Abbey was a victim of his success, and yet the word implies too much. In greatest repute and prosperity he never relaxed his ideal. He put forth nothing that did not represent superior thinking and high skill of hand. He painted nothing that was not instinct with a certain noble gentleness that was quite his own. The transparent loyalty of the man is written in every stroke of his brush and pen. He has left a sweet memory among his colleagues. We may regret that in a time of artistic confusion he was drawn into tasks not wholly compatible with his powers. A similar mischance, it will be recalled, made for the nonce a monumental painter out of the delightful Stothard. But we cannot withhold admiration from the spirit in which Abbey undertook these imposed tasks. His achievement may not seem to rank very high on an absolute scale, but it increases one's respect for the human intelligence. Finally we shall not be suspected of chauvinism when we rejoice that America had the best of Abbey and the perceptiveness to recognize that best promptly.

From Berlin comes the report of the death of Prof. Reinhold Begas, the distinguished German sculptor, at the age of eighty. His first great work was a group, Hagar and Ishmaël, which showed that his talent was of a different character from that of his master, Rauch; the difference became clearer with the appearance of his group, Psyche and Amor, in 1856. In 1857 he went to Rome and was a student of ancient and modern works, in company with Feuerbach, Böklin, Lenbach, and others. The result of his studies and his work in Rome was shown in his Pan Consoling Psyche, which was completed in 1858, and an heroic group representing Borussia Protecting Commerce, Agriculture, and the Arts, which was placed in the Boerse at Berlin. Begas was chosen instructor in the Weimar Art School in 1861, but served in that capacity only a short time, and then upon entering once more into active work in his profession became a competitor in the international contest for the Berlin Schiller monument. After a long and stubborn artistic controversy, his plans were accepted and the monument, which was unveiled in 1871, justified the decision of the judges. In the meantime, several groups and figures had been produced in Begas's studio, all of which attracted attention and showed a continued improvement. Early in the seventies he began to devote time to new subjects, and his figures became less ideal and more lifelike. His chief works of this period were a Mercury and Psyche under a palm tree and the fountain in the Schloss court in Berlin, with figures of Neptune, centaurs, mermaids, and sea gods. Soon after these works were completed he made the statue of Wealth for the Reichsbank, Berlin, and then an heroic Borussia and two herculean figures representing Strength and the Science of War for the arsenal. With these he established a reputation for thoroughness and fertile imagination. Many believed that the strong personality and individuality of the man were most clearly shown in his portrait busts, among which the most notable are those of the Empress Frederick, Countess Bismarck, and Moltke. Popularly he was best known as the designer of the Kaiser Wilhelm Denkmal in Berlin.

Finance

A HISTORY OF THE STOCK EXCHANGE.

The Stock Exchange. By Francis W. Hirst. A short study of investment and speculation. (Home University Library). New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents net.

The editor of the London *Economist* applies himself, in this concise handbook, to set forth exactly what is the history and function of the Stock Exchange in modern finance. Premising the absolutely indispensable work performed by the institution in these days, the author remarks that the philosopher might wonder "why, with their baths, their theatres, their courts of law, their shops and markets and banks, Athens and Rome never invented or possessed a Stock Exchange." His answer is that interest-bearing paper, in the modern form of securities, was first invented to finance the Continental wars of William of Orange. Even under Charles the Second, the English Government borrowed on what were known as "goldsmith's notes," on which ten, twenty, and even thirty per cent. was exacted by the close corporation of wealthy lenders. Charles's repudiation of £1,328,526 of the public debt (outstanding at 6 per cent.) disclosed the fact that "not merchants only, but widows, orphans, and others, became suddenly deprived of the whole of their property." The upshot, when a government with stability and principles had been provided, was the Bank of England and government securities on the modern basis.

The use of the stock-issue device, on an enormous scale, followed in the days of the South Sea Company, copied from John Law's "Mississippi Bubble" in France, and the civilized world was fairly launched in "booms," "panics" and stock exchanges. Mr. Hirst traces the rise of the London Stock Exchange from the days when brokers met in coffee houses or in the street to the present day. It was the foreign government loans between 1818 and 1832 which brought the institution into public notice (with unpleasant results); but the first rise of the Stock Exchange to a distinct place in the business organism of the day came with the movement to capitalize the railway movement of 1844 and 1845. The history of the London Exchange is in fact made up of a succession of such chapters, each converging chiefly on a new field of financial exploitation. The Argentine craze which culminated in 1890, the South African gold mine craze of 1895 and the four subsequent years made up its field of principal activity. The "Rubber mania" of 1910 was only a repetition, on a smaller scale, of numerous previous episodes of the sort.

Mr. Hirst surveys and compares the stock exchanges of other cities than London. Wall Street does not escape its share of criticism; the secret of its supremacy "lies in the power of its banks as manufactories and curtailers of credit. Hence it is not merely a market of bonds and shares, not merely a recorder, but a manipulator and controller of prices." The use of our Stock Exchange by exploiting "syndicates," the general restriction of its interest to domestic enterprises (despite the talk of 1901 that New York was becoming the "central money market of the world"), and the part played by "margin speculation" and professional traders, are treated with illuminating insight, from the London point of view. It is interesting to note that Mr. Hirst approves the system of daily settlement for purchases and sales of stock on the New York Exchange, as against the London system of fortnightly adjustment of accounts. This, he concludes, "is doubtless one of the causes why failures or defaults are so commendably rare." It may be so; but the system of daily settlements is also in a large degree the cause for the convulsions in the "call money" market which occur on a sudden outside demand for money when bank reserves are low and an active speculation is in progress on the Stock Exchange. Such an outside demand may be merely temporary; it may be such as can be readily offset by gold imports, Treasury operations, or remittances from other markets. But the stock broker must be able to renew his loans at the daily settlement, and that is precisely why, on occasions of the sort, one hears of Wall Street bidding 10, 25, or even 100 per cent. per annum for one day's use of money.

Concerning such pregnant questions as how to judge what are good securi-

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ties, and as to what it is that regulates Stock Exchange prices, Mr. Hirst has much to say. His advice, like that of most experienced observers, is either to judge by the market's own valuation, or else to engage in thorough study of a really intricate subject. He is severe, but not unjustly so, on the unwarranted and indiscriminate prestige which has been won in America by the term "first mortgage bonds." Concerning the securities of our "billion-dollar steel trust," he has a kindly word to say. He believes that the value of iron is more likely to rise than fall, and that the company's position would be helped rather than hurt by sweeping reduction of the tariff.

In discussing movement of prices for securities, Mr. Hirst does not add much to the late Sir Robert Giffen's excellent monograph on the subject. But he has some very suggestive words—based in the main on Wall Street's recent history—regarding that factor in values which is popularly known as "manipulation," and which made the New York stock market of 1905 and 1906 something very near to an economic absurdity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. Florence. Revised by J. W. and A. M. Cruickshank. Holt. $1.35 net.
Aristotelis. De Arte Poetica. Frowde.
Arnoux, C. E. d'. Poems. Boston: The Poet Lore Co.
Benedict, R. D. Stories from the Old French Chronicles. Boston: Badger.
Bidwell, D. D. As Far as the East is from the West. Third edition. Hartford: The S. S. Scranton Co.
Blan, L. B. A Special Study of the Incidence of Retardation. Teachers College, Columbia University. $1.
Coffman, L. D. The Social Composition of the Teaching Population. Teachers College, Columbia University. $1.
Gladden, W. The Labor Question. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Home University Library. Introduction to Mathematics, by A. N. Whitehead; Evolution, by P. Geddes and J. A. Thomson; Medieval Europe, by H. W. C. Davis; The Animal World, by F. W. Gamble; The Science of Wealth, by J. A. Hobson. Holt. 75 cents net, each.
Illinois Historical Collections. Vol. vii. Governors' Letter-Books—1840-1853, by E. B. Greene and C. M. Thompson. Springfield, Ill.: Ill. State Historical Library
Kildare, O. and L. Such a Woman. Dillingham. $1.35 net.
Kirk, F. M. Junior Geography Questions. Frowde.
Kirk, W. F. Right Off the Bat: Baseball Ballads. Dillingham. 50 cents net.
Macaulay's Essays on Warren Hastings. Edited, with notes, by V. A. Smith. Frowde.
Murray, G. The Rise of the Greek Epic. Being a Course of Lectures Delivered at Harvard University. Second edition, revised. Frowde. $2.50.
Orpen, G. H. Ireland Under the Normans, 1169-1216. 2 vols. Frowde.
Oxford English Dictionary. Vol. ix, Team—Tezkere. Frowde. $1.25.
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